THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN MATERNAL STRESS AND MOTHERS' PERCEPTIONS OF THEIR PRESCHOOL CHILDREN'S SOCIAL BEHAVIORS: A CROSS-CULTURAL STUDY OF IMMIGRANT KOREAN MOTHERS IN THE UNITED STATES AND KOREAN MOTHERS IN KOREA

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The purpose of the study was to investigate the impact of maternal stress as it relates to the mothers' perceived social behaviors of their preschool children in both immigrant Korean families in the US and Korean families in Korea. The subjects included 49 immigrant Korean mothers in the US and 52 Korean mothers in Seoul, Korea. This study is relevant to current research because of the dramatically increasing Korean immigrants in the US and needed information concerning unique cultural and psychosocial needs of Korean-Americans.

All mothers completed the Demographic Survey, Parenting Stress Index (PSI), and Preschool and Kindergarten Behavior Scales-2 (PKBS-2). Statistical analyses of the data used for the study were multiple regressions, independent *t*-tests, and Pearson correlation coefficients. Data analysis revealed that (a) there were different demographic variables affecting maternal stress between immigrant Korean mothers in the US and Korean mothers in Korea; (b) there was no significant difference in maternal stress and mothers' perceptions of their preschool children's social skills in the areas of social cooperation, social interaction, and social independence between both groups; (c) there was a significant difference in preschool children's behavioral problems in the areas of externalizing and internalizing social-emotional behaviors between both groups; (d) there was a negative relationship between maternal stress and mothers' perceptions of their preschool children's social skills, and (e) there was a positive relationship between

maternal stress and mothers' perceptions of their preschool children's behavioral problems in both groups.

Findings from this study showed that US immigrant Korean children and their mothers could experience stress in mother-child interaction and culturally expected gender behaviors. This study provides information that could be helpful for early childhood educators who work with Korean young children and their families in regards to the process of acculturating to the United States.

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DEDICATION

In expression of my gratitude for all his encouragement, support, and constant loyalty for my doctoral studies, I dedicate this dissertation to my husband, Han-Won Choi. You are my eternal other half, my destiny!

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Background

During the 1980s there was a 63% increase in the immigrant populations in the United States from the previous decade due to the 1965 Hart-Celler Act (Marcus, 2003; Mindel, Habenstein, & Wright, 1998; Perlmann & Waldinger, 1998), which opened the door for greatly expanded immigration, regardless of race or ethnicity, for purposes of occupational immigration (Hurh, 1998; Min, 1998b). Between 1990 and 1999, the population of the United States increased by approximately 23.5 million, which then totaled 273 million. Of the 23.5 million increase, nearly 7.5 million were a result of immigration (U.S. Bureau of the Census, 2001). Among those immigrating from all over the world, the largest increase has been from Asia, Latin America, and the Caribbean (Daniels, 2004; Nah, 2001; Reimers, 2005; U.S. Bureau of the Census, 1992). These three groups accounted for as much as 40% of the total population increase over the past decade in the United States (Daniels, 2004; Nah, 2001; Reimers, 2005; U.S. Bureau of the Census, 1992).

As the United States becomes increasingly more ethnically diverse, one rapidly growing ethnic group is Asian immigrants (Bjorck, Cuthbertson, Thurman, & Lee, 2001; Daniels, 2004; Kim & Omizo, 1996; Lin-Goodwin, 2003; Reimers, 2005; Yeh, 2003; Yeh & Inose, 2002). In 1990, nearly 7 million Asian immigrants were reported compared to 3.5 million in 1980 (U.S. Bureau of the Census, 2000). The percent has doubled in ten years. These unprecedented numbers of Asian immigrants have contributed economically and culturally, not only to their own ethnic communities in the U.S., but also to the entire Asian-American population (Daniels, 2004). The census recorded there are 12.5 million Asian immigrants in the U.S.,

which accounts for approximately 4.4% of the U.S. population in the year 2002 (U.S. Bureau of the Census, 2003a).

During this time period of increased immigration from Asian countries, significant changes also occurred within the Asian-American population. At the time of the Immigration Act of 1965, the three nationalities with the greatest numbers of immigrants in the U.S. were Japanese, Chinese, and Filipinos. At that point, their combined numbers account for more than 90% of the Asian-American population. By 1990, these three groups of immigrants totaled only 56.6% of the Asian-American community, and they comprised slightly less than half, at 49.6%, by 2000 (Daniels, 2004).

By 2000, Korean-Americans were one of the fastest growing Asian-American ethnic groups in the U.S. with a population exceeding 1 million (Chang, Rhee, & Weaver, 2006; Shrake & Rhee, 2004; U.S. Bureau of the Census, 2003b). The first wave of Korean immigrants to the U.S. was roughly 7,200 migrant workers, who came to Hawaii as plantation laborers between 1903 and 1905 (Chan & Lee, 2004; Hurh, 1998; Kim, 2002; Light, 1997; Min, 2001; Park, 2002; Patterson, 2000). After the Korean War, Korean immigration grew rapidly because of the close military, political, and economic connections between the U.S. and Korea (Hurh, 1998; Kim, 2002; Min, 2001).

Since 1965, five main factors have influenced Korean immigration to the United States: (a) Korea's partition into north and south, known as *pundan* ("division"); (b) the continuing involvement of the U.S. government in the Korean peninsula in political, military and economic issues; (c) the rise of the new middle class in Korea as a result of a rapid economic development via transformation into an industrialized country; (d) the development of a new international division of labor

and the changing status's of Korea; and (e) the migration policies created by both the U.S. and Korean government (Park, 1997). The population of Korean immigrants in the U.S. increased 135% from 1980 to 1990, and another 35% from 1990 to 2000 (U.S. Bureau of the Census, 2000). With a population of 1 million people, Korean-Americans are the fifth largest Asian group, representing 10.5% of the total Asian and Pacific Islander population (Chan & Lee, 2004).

Korean immigrants came to the U.S. to seek a better life, to establish personal gain, and to pursue a good education for their children (Hong & Hong, 1996; Hurh, 1998; Kim, 1997; Park, 2002; Yeh, Ma, Madan-Bahel, Hunter, Jung, Kim, Akitaya, & Sasaki, 2005). They possessed certain characteristics that differed from the other East Asian immigrants (Daniels, 2004; Min, 1998b; Min, 2001; Park, 2002). Korean immigrants shared common traits such as (a) cultural homogeneity in the areas of historical experiences and a single language (Min, 1998b; Min, 2001; Vegdahl & Hur, 2005), (b) affiliation with Korean ethnic churches, usually Protestant (Chan & Lee, 2003; Hong & Hong, 1996; Kwon, 2003; Lassiter, 1995; Min, 1998b; Min, 2001; Park, 1997; Reimers, 2005), and (c) concentration of labor-intensive small business such as store owners (Chan & Lee, 2003; Hurh, 1998; Min, 1998b; Min, 2001; Park, 1997; Park, 2002). Due in part to the fact that there is only one Korean language and virtually no ethnic or racial diversity exists in Korea, Korean immigrant populations in the U.S. tend to be highly homogeneous (Min, 1998b; Min, 2001; Vegdahl & Hur, 2005). Because of their cultural homogeneity based on a monolingual background, Korean immigrants exclusively speak the Korean language at home and depend on the Korean language media for information and recreational activities (Min, 1998b; Min, 2001).

With regard to religion, Korean immigrants in the U.S. are strongly affiliated with Korean Methodist and Presbyterian churches (Chan & Lee, 2003; Hong & Hong, 1996; Min, 1998b; Min, 2001; Park, 1997; Reimers, 2005). Korean churches attempt to preserve language, social bonds, and customs associated with the Korean culture (Kim & Kim, 2001; Reimers, 2005). Through the intimate social environments and fellowships for new Korean immigrants, they construct relationships and networks to cope with the sense of alienation or culture shock they may face in a different environment (Hong & Hong, 1996; Kim & Kim, 2001; Min, 2001). The other function of Korean churches in the U.S. is to maintain the Korean cultural traditions. Korean churches celebrate not only Christian religious holidays, but they also celebrate Korean traditional holidays such as the Lunar New Year and Thanksgiving. Most Korean churches have established their own schools to teach the younger Korean generations about their Korean language, culture, and history (Min, 1998b; Min, 2001).

In America, Koreans are often associated with small labor-intensive businesses, such as groceries, delicatessens, liquor and convenience stores, markets, dry cleaning, and gas stations, as well as retail sales of Asian-imported manufactured goods because these jobs require minimal English language skills (Chan & Lee, 2003; Park, 1997; Park, 2002; Moon, 1999). The concentration within this limited range of small business is a common characteristic among immigrants from Korea because of their disadvantages in nonbusiness occupations, not because of their advantages in small business (Lee-Shong & Song, 2004; Moon, 1999). According to the U.S. National Bureau of Economic Research (2001), Korean immigrants have the highest rate of self-employment, with 28% of men and 20% of women owning their own businesses. Many Korean immigrants who are college-

educated professionals with white-collar backgrounds turned to blue-collar jobs such as low-level service or labor-intensive jobs with overly long working hours (Nah, 2001; Park, 2002). Typically, these jobs are characterized with more than 12 hours per day, and six or seven days per week in the U.S. due to the language barriers and differences in the Korean and American job market requirements (Chan & Lee, 2003; Min, 2001; Nah, 2001; Park, 2002). Furthermore, their professional certificates in Korea are not usually recognized in the U.S. As a result, their involvement in small businesses usually leads to economic segregation, which has been a major factor in the strengthening the bond of Korean communities (Chan & Lee, 2003; Min, 1998b).

A high degree of ethnic attachment, along with cultural homogeneity, the significant role of church and the establishments of small businesses all contribute to maintaining strong bonds and providing solace for Korean immigrants. Clearly, the community connections of Korean-Americans are an important quality among Korean immigrants, which help them overcome many of the cultural and economic challenges (Park, 2002). The factors that contribute to ethnic attachment, however, also can hinder acculturation into the American society. Ethnic and economic segregation have isolated Korean immigrants from the larger society, which hinders involvement in mainstream America (Chan & Lee, 2003; Daniels, 2004; Min, 1998b; Min, 2001; Park, 2002).

Since the 1990s, the number of Korean immigrants in the U.S. has steadily fallen, as improvements in the economic, political, and social situation in Korea have made immigration less attractive (Marcus, 2003; Ministry of Foreign Affairs and Trade, 2003). However, since the economic depression at the end of the 1990s in Korea, immigration has once again become a prominent social issue. In the gap between social classes and hierarchy, as well as a stagnant trade and industry, there

has been an increasing number of people who consider immigration to the U.S. as an opportunity for a fresh start, a better life, and the prospect of succeeding in ways not available in Korea (Trend of Immigration, 2003). The number of Koreans who have applied for immigration into the U.S. during June of 2003 was 1,173, which was a record high (Ministry of Foreign Affairs and Trade, 2003). Such data indicate that Koreans who want to live in the U.S. are increasing in numbers in the 21st century.

Rationale for the Study

Immigration and Stress

Each immigrant group experiences difficulties while adapting during the adjustment period to a new country. This adjustment period is usually referred to as "culture shock," which triggers negative strain and feelings of anxiety as they encounter unfamiliar values, behaviors, and norms to a new culture (Lynch, 2004; Yeh & Inose, 2002; Yost & Lucas, 2002). Immigration produces a major change in the entire life situation of the immigrants due to differences between the native culture and the new one. Also, differences of individual personalities, whether they came to a new country voluntarily, or out of necessity, can interfere with their acknowledged way of life (Ben-Sira, 1997; Yost & Lucas, 2002). "The experience of migration is usually referred to as acculturation, which is assumed to be primarily a linguistic, cultural, and social adjustment" (Deepak, 2005, p. 589).

As the first stage of adjusting to a nonnative culture, acculturation involves changes in identity, values, behaviors, cognition, and attitudes (Klein & Chen, 2001; Miranda & Matheny, 2000; Torres & Rollock, 2004). Immigrants may experience higher levels of awkwardness in the process of adapting because of a new culture which has evolved differently over time from the culture of their home land, despite

the motivation and readiness for change and adjustment (Lee & Westwood, 1996; Yeh et al., 2005). Being an immigrant member of a minority group, and living in a different culturally foreign environment can be a stressful situation for people because of the complicated adjustment experiences associated with culture shock (Kim & Honig, 1998; Yost & Lucas, 2002).

"The process of immigration exposes both the immigrants and the absorbing society to the risk of stress" (Ben-Sira, 1997, p. 35). Immigrants are closely associated with stressful changes in a wide range of areas (Ben-Sira, 1997): (a) physical changes, such as a new place to live; (b) political changes, such as unfamiliar political processes; (c) economic changes, such as different types of employment requiring knowledge and skills from the country of origin; (d) cultural changes, such as a different language and children's education; and (e) social changes, such as different social relationships. These changes are capable of overwhelming even the most well-adjusted people and can cause great stress.

The aforementioned changes result in a unique type of distress referred to as "acculturative stress," which infers negative psychological consequences of acculturating such as emotional distress, shock, and anxiety (Kuo & Roysircar, 2004; Miranda & Matheny, 2000; Torres & Rollock, 2004). As a result of the stressful life experiences such as feeling a loss of control, feeling helpless, having less self-confidence, experiencing role conflicts, verbal and nonverbal communication barriers, emotional difficulties, and encountering unfamiliar behavioral norms, the risk of stress among immigrants is increased over time (Ben-Sira, 1997; Yeh et al., 2005).

Asian Immigrant Women and Stress

In the process of adapting to their new environment, Asian immigrants are faced with difficult challenges. Studies with Asian immigrants have revealed that their

population had serious developmental, social, and emotional difficulties in terms of cross-cultural adjustment (Bjorck et al., 2001; Chung, 2001; Lee, 1996; Sodowsky & Lai, 1997; Uba, 1994). Adjustment into mainstream America for female Asian immigrants presents different challenges as compared to non-Asian women in the U.S. Being a minority within a minority, due to differing physical appearances from European-Americans, for example, can result in feelings of estrangement and alienation, which is documented as part of the immigrant experience (Harris-Hastick, 1996). Another problematic situation involves the disparity in levels of language abilities between the Asian immigrant women and their children (Harris-Hastick, 1996; Lee-Sohng & Song, 2004). Since their children are likely to be educated in American schools, Korean-born mothers will not be able to speak the same quality and level of English as their children. The language barrier impacts communication, conflicting cultural values, and differing societal expectations (Harris-Hastick, 1996; Lee-Sohng & Song, 2004). Tensions and stresses among Asian immigrant mothers are the results of these unfortunate conflicts.

Traditionally, there are shared common characteristics that shape and define the role and status of women among Asian families. Collectivistic cultures emphasize the needs and views of the family or community rather than those of the individual (Choi, 2002; Gudykunst, 2001). Women are regarded as being a small part of a large equation that is required to make sacrifices for the family (Gudykunst, 2001; Harris-Hastick, 1996). Furthermore, the traditional pattern for Asian cultures emphasizes a hierarchical role structure identifying the father as the boss, and the mother as his obedient assistant (Klein & Chen, 2001; Park, 2006). Korean sons typically receive preferential treatment over daughters by providing them with a better quality of over-all care including food, clothing, and education (Chang & Myers, 1997; Park, 2006).

Therefore, women are expected to tolerate these cultural nuances rather than to complain (Harris-Hastick, 1996). An Asian woman's most important role is caring for her family and raising her children. In other words, her primary obligation is to produce offspring and to meet the needs of her family without regard to her own needs.

While Asian immigrant mothers endeavor to be responsible for the home and children, financial needs also drive women to work outside the home. This extra responsibility is a stressful burden for immigrant women from Asian countries because it is an unfamiliar role for them (Chung, 2001). Within the predominant traditional Confucian values, Asian immigrant women who are working outside the home remain bound by duty to keep the interests of the family and home as their top priority, which stands in contrast to the Western values of personal rights and privileges (Chang & Myers, 1997; Pak, 2001). Unlike the tendency of Americans to express emotion freely, Asian women are more likely to restrain themselves verbally, despite the continuous strains caused by the challenges of their new environment (Chang & Myers, 1997). Furthermore, their jobs with low paying and unskilled positions in the labor market may expose them to the combined effects of racism and sexism. All these effects may bring about a variety of mental health issues, such as induced depression and low self-esteem, as well as marital and parent-child problems that are detrimental toward competently functioning in a new society (Chang & Myers, 1997; Yakushko & Chronister, 2005).

Immigration Process and Parenting

The social and cultural norms that immigrants have experienced in their new country are considerably different from those in their home country. "The process of migration is a set of shifting and conflicting demands, expectations, and possibilities

centered on gender, power, culture, and sexuality coming from the ideologies, structural conditions, and cultural and social norms of the home and host countries" (Deepak, 2005, p. 590). Specific stresses are experienced through the process of immigration by accepting, rejecting, accommodating, and reformulating these demands (Deepak, 2005). These processes can either strengthen family relationships or increase the stress on the family system (Lynch, 2004). Indeed, migration to the U.S. creates particular pressures on the family system and changes within the structure of the family (Suarez-Orozco & Suarez-Orozco, 2001).

The immigration experience creates conditions for negative parenting temperaments because the unfamiliar behaviors of the children can cause confusion and discomfort for the parents (Deepak, 2005; Klein & Chen, 2001; Lynch, 2004). For example, in the Korean cultural tradition, direct eye contact or smiling may be considered disrespectful and inappropriate contrary to American cultural norms. Child rearing in a different culture for immigrant parents may contribute to strong intergenerational conflicts, which may create inconsistent involvement with their children's education (Chang & Myers, 1997; Klein & Chen, 2001).

Linking the stress of migration to problems in mental health, immigrants experience a variety of psychological problems relative to non-immigrants in emotional or physical ways, such as frustration, anger, depression, withdrawal, lethargy, aggression, or illness (Lynch, 2004; Short & Johnston, 1997; Suarez-Orozco & Suarez-Orozco, 2001). However, Korean immigrants rarely reveal their personal or emotional difficulties to others because they feel shame due to cultural misconceptions about mental health issues (Chang & Myers, 1997; Kim, 2002; Yeh & Inose, 2002). Immigrant children also experience culture shock as they attempt to accommodate their new environment. As a result, they may become frustrated,

irritated, depressed, and withdrawn (Lynch, 2004; Yeh & Inose, 2002). As is expected in all family structures, the parents serve as role models for their children, and encourage them to take advantage of opportunities to be socialized in their new society (Olneck, 2001). Therefore, immigrant parents who experience emotional distress may have a problematic parent-child relationship in the acculturation process (Yeh & Inose, 2002). The emotional trauma that follows immigration is why immigration is connected with the stress of parent-child relationships (Short & Johnston, 1997).

A higher frequency of child behavior issues, concerned with more negative parenting behavior, is closely linked to stressful life events. “Young children learn how to behave, what to value and believe, and about roles and relationships through observation, participation, and interaction with their families” (Klein & Chen, 2001, p. 5). Family attitudes and values have a clear influence on the development of children’s social skills and behaviors (Suarez-Orozco & Suarez-Orozco, 2001). Therefore, immigrant parents who experience stressful transitions that trigger mental health problems may fail to develop healthy and positive adult-child interactions (Kim & Greene, 2003; Klein & Chen, 2001). This effects their immigrant children’s abilities to adjust well in the new culture and language.

Most parenting studies focus on the maternal role because mothers are traditionally the primary caregivers of children in most societies (Buki, Ma, Strom, & Strom, 2003). Immigrant women’s acculturation experiences may threaten their physical, emotional, and mental health, which may impede effective communication and appropriate parental control (Klein & Chen, 2001; Yakushko & Chronister, 2005). Because immigrant parents tend to be less acculturated to the majority culture than their children, a larger perceived acculturation gap is associated with more parenting

difficulties (Buki et al., 2003; Lee-Sohng & Song, 2004). For example, the child of an immigrant is likely to be more comfortable with certain things that he or she sees on TV than his or her mother, since the home country might not have had such things. Difficulties in mothers' interaction with their children may establish an association between child behavioral problems and parental factors associated with immigration such as stress and anxiety (Short & Johnston, 1997).

Some studies report that children of immigrants who experienced a larger acculturation gap with their parents were less competent in the area of language preference (Pawliuk, Grizenko, Chan-Yip, Gantous, Mathew, & Nguyen, 1996) and demonstrated more relational difficulties with their parents when their language preference was different from the parents (Tseng & Fuglini, 2000). However, several studies (Chiu, Feldman, & Rosenthal, 1992; Munroe-Blum, Boyle, Offord, & Kastes, 1989; Yao, Solanto, & Wender, 1988) reported no significant differences between immigrant and non-immigrant groups in the relationships between parental coping strategies and children's stress.

Previously, numerous studies have described serious social and emotional difficulties such as depression, low self-esteem, and anxiety among children of immigrant families, compared to children of non-immigrant families. However, the impact of the immigration process on parenting is not adequately taken into consideration, as it relates to people of differing nationalities and immigrant mothers (Buki et al., 2003; Kim & Omizo, 1996). Hence, little is known about various cultural and ethnic variations in general (Buki et al., 2003; Chiu et al., 1992). As such, there is not much data collected in this area. In particular, women from Korea who immigrate to the U.S. have not been the subjects of any major research. For that reason, the focus of this study is to determine which stress factors exist between

immigrant Korean mothers in the U.S. and Korean mothers in Korea; the differences in maternal stress and mothers' perceived children's social behaviors between both Korean groups; and the relationship between maternal stress and mothers' perceptions of their children's social behaviors.

Statement of the Problem

Korean immigrants are one of the largest Asian immigrants moving to the United States during the past two decades (U.S. Bureau of the Census, 2000). Along with other Asian immigrants, the Korean people struggle with many new challenges, such as "culture shock." However, difficulties associated with adjusting to life in a different country appear to have a more unique and damaging impact upon Koreans, when compared to immigrants of other nationalities (Kim, 2002; Nah, 2001). Korean-Americans tend to suffer from more mental health problems and social difficulties per capita, than any other Asian immigrant groups in the U.S. because of new challenges including social pressure to acquire a second language, social isolation, financial burdens, and an unfamiliar education system (Hong & Hong, 1996; Nah, 2001). However, Koreans rarely complain of depression or other mental health problems which may result in needed counseling and other mental health support services (Chang & Myers, 1997; Kim, 2002; Kim & Omizo, 1996).

One particular segment of the Korean immigrant population that tends to face significant levels of emotional risk is mothers (Chang & Myers, 1997; Harris-Hastick, 1996; Pak, 2001). Nah's (2001) research provides details regarding the variety of adjustment factors facing mothers associated with relocation to a new country, and how Korean women who had children responded to those challenges. While simultaneously becoming proficient in the English language, the Korean mothers

also face life style and family structural changes. The challenges of effectively communicating in a new language while seeking employment and socialization is very complicated, especially when taking care of children without the benefit of a familiar community. Because the extended family members of these mothers are not present in the new country, they are not available to give assistance in areas of child care and child-rearing, adding to the high rates of maternal stress (Nah, 2001; Pak, 2001).

The immigrant Korean mothers' roles change drastically from their traditional ways. In Korea, most women do not work after marriage and child-birth in order to fulfill their traditional role of being full-time homemakers (Hurh, 1998; Pak, 2001). However, working outside the home to supplement the family's financial needs is not unique for Korean wives. The actual labor force participation indicates 56% of married immigrant Korean women in the U.S., compared to only 20% of married women in Korea (Chang & Moon, 1998). When women work in Korea, children are usually cared for by a grandmother or other family relatives. In contrast, in the U.S., immigrant Korean women work outside the home, depending on the availability of child care facilities for their young children in order to attain better financial status than pre-immigration middle class background (Hurh, 1998; Nah, 2001; Pak, 2001). Furthermore, immigrant Korean women in the U.S. are also required to be a *hyonmo yangcho'o* ("wise mother-good wife"), which prescribes that she is a perfect wife and mother in the expected traditional role of women in Korea (Kim, 1998; Min, 1998a; Pak, 2001). Therefore, the wife's burden is doubled because there is little role sharing between working women and their husbands in Korean immigrant families. This role leads to a heavier work load for wives in managing the household work alone (Hurh, 1998). That is to say, she cares for her family, raises her children, and

works to contribute to the household economy. The woman's endless and thankless labor is perceived as her duty to her family (Hurh, 1998; Nah, 2001; Pak, 2001).

Traditional Korean collectivism emphasizes the value of family as a central unit instead of a group of individuals. One example of these ideas for Koreans is the concept of *Uri* ("we") used to denote a group of people (such as "our family"), an entity (such as "our nation"), and even possession (such as "our house") (Kim & Choi, 1994). Under the concept of *Uri,* women are strongly persuaded to devote themselves to their family within a highly male-dominant social structure (Chang, Rhee, & Dale, 2006; Kim, 2000; Lee-Sohng & Song, 2004; Park, 2006). Since their role in the family is always as either someone's daughter, wife, or mother, they never consider themselves to be a single entity. As a result, they never experience a sense of individuality. Combining the force of feudal tradition with providing for family finances in the U.S., immigrant Korean women may experience strong depressive reactions as a part of the immigration process and changes (Chang & Myers, 1997). In addition, immigrant Korean mothers often experience uncertainty about the appropriateness of their cultural values and norms in a new environment. They are unfamiliar with the new culture's values and norms, and may potentially fail to provide consistent or appropriate parenting in a new country for their children (Harris-Hastick, 1996). All these changes can be potential stressors, which may lead to greater maternal stress in a new country.

Maternal stress has caused problems in parental functioning, including less optimal parent-child interaction, insecure child attachment, and child abuse and neglect (Ostberg & Hagekull, 2000). The cumulative impact of parenting stress in mothers of young children is associated with an adverse impact on parental behavior (Peterson & Hawley, 1998). In other words, the experience of maternal stress is

nearly associated with negative outcomes in young children. High degrees of maternal stress are strongly related to the presence of more child behavior problems such as low self-esteem, poor concentration, nervousness, stuttering, and nail-biting (Suarez & Baker, 1997).

For children, the experience of transcending two cultures and languages is different from that of their parents (Kirova, 2007). Children are typically socialized more quickly to the new culture, leading to the widening assimilation gap between parent and child (Chang & Myers, 1997; Hong & Hong, 1996). This process causes additional stress and strain on parent-child relationships (Chang & Myers, 1997). As for Korean immigrants in particular, under the strong Confucian cultural tradition, even if children express disagreement, they are expected to obey and show respect for their parents (Kirova, 2007; Min, 1998b). Moreover, rigid gender socialization still persists in the Korean immigrant community today, which is significantly different from American families (Min, 1998b). Along with intense conflicts with their parents and new culture, children also experience many mental and behavioral hardships such as low self-confidence, social isolation, and social aggressiveness (Hurh, 1998; Min, 1998b).

Consequently, there is a need to determine the impact of maternal stress on children's social behaviors among immigrant Korean mothers in the U.S. in relation to Korean mothers in Korea. Although there is significant research to suggest that immigrant Koreans experience several unique problems that contribute to stress while adjusting to the U.S. (Kim & Omizo, 1996; Nah, 2001; Pak, 2001; Shin, 1994), the studies are limited to concerns with maternal stress impacting children's social development. The problems which immigrant Korean mothers in the U.S. manifest are (a) stress as a risk factor for parenting due to adjusting and working in a new

country; (b) negative parental behaviors due to higher stress levels; and (c) lack of positive child-parent interactions that may lead to children's behavioral problems. Therefore, there is a need to establish (a) the levels of stress which working immigrant Korean mothers in the U.S. compared to working Korean mothers in Korea; (b) the working immigrant Korean mothers' perceptions of their children's social behaviors compared to working mothers in Korea; and (c) the relationship of maternal stress on the working immigrant Korean mothers' perceptions of their children's social behaviors compared to working mothers in Korea. This study contributes needed information concerning immigrant Korean mothers in the U.S., as well as Korean mothers in Korea, and also contributes to our knowledge of child development and parenting practices. This study also helps students, teachers, and administrators to better understand the unique cultural and psychosocial needs of Korean-American children and to support them in school.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this investigation was to determine the impact of maternal stress as it relates to the mothers' perceptions of their preschool children's social behaviors. This study examined (a) Korean mothers' parenting stress in the U.S. and Korea; (b) the mothers' perceptions of the social behaviors of their preschool children; and (c) the relationship between maternal stress and the mothers' perceived social behaviors of their preschool children. This study was designed to compare the differences in maternal stress and mothers' perceived social behaviors of their preschool children in both immigrant Korean families in the U.S. and Korean families in Korea. The results of this study will help early childhood educators better understand the cultural transitions and difficulties many Korean families and young

children may experience in U.S. schools. In Korea, this study will help Korean families better understand the effects of maternal stress and its impact on the parenting skills in a positive or negative way.

Definition of Terms

The following terms were used in this study:

Acculturation is defined as a process that individuals from minority groups learn about the dominant cultural group's norms, values, and behaviors, including language fluency, food and dating preferences, celebration of holidays, and cultural values observed (Sheets, 2005; Tores & Rollock, 2004).

Child care in this study refers to the care and education of young children between the ages of three to six year olds in a center-based care.

Culture shock in this study is defined as the anxiety that occurs when an individual's basic values, beliefs, and patterns of behavior are challenged by a different culture and social norms, which may result in discomfort such as feelings of confusion, anger, depression, withdrawal, aggression, or illness (Lynch, 2004).

Externalizing problems are defined as behavioral problems that appear to be related to children who act out and are disruptive, lacking in self-control, and displaying overactive behavior, which includes aggressiveness, defiance, and oppositional behaviors (Merrell, 2002).

Immigrant Korean mother is defined in this study as a Korean mother with a child between the ages of four to six year olds, who immigrated to the U.S.

Insecure attachment is a mother's intrusive, unresponsive, and inconsistent behavior toward their children's activities, which lead their children to develop ambivalence,

anger, and frustration over inability to connect with the mother (Hamner & Turner, 1996).

Internalizing problems are defined as behavioral and emotional problems that are related to inner emotional distress, including depression, social withdrawal, anxiety, inhibited reaction, and somatic problems (Merrell, 2002).

Kindergarten (as referred to by Korean standards) in this study is a school where children ages three to six are taught.

Maternal depression in this study is defined as feeling helpless, hostile, critical, less active, and less competent as experienced by immigrant women while adjusting to an unfamiliar culture and their values (Patterson & Albers, 2001)

Maternal stress is defined in this study as mothers' stress manifested in parenting. Maternal stress is the stress perceived by the mother in the parent-child system (i.e., the move to the new location, the death of relative). For the purpose of this study, maternal stress is operationally defined as the mothers' scores on the Parenting Stress Index (Abidin, 1995).

Parenting stress is defined as "the evasive psychological reaction to the demands of being a parent" (Deater-Deckard, *1998*, p. 315).

Person-environment fit (P-E fit) is process-oriented and takes into account the dynamic nature of the relationship between the person and the environment (Barrtlett, 1998).

Preschool children is a term which describes children whose ages range from four to six in this study. In Korea there is no kindergarten program in the elementary schools, so children enter 1st grade at age seven. In contrast, most 1st graders in the U.S. begin school at age six, and usually turn seven years old during that year.

Behavioral problems in this study describe various behavioral, social, emotional, and

developmental problems commonly seen in the early childhood/preschool population such as aggression, attention problems, self-centeredness, anxiety, and social withdrawal (Merrell, 2002).

Korea will be used as South Korea for the purpose of this study. Korea is a term which generally denotes both South Korea and North Korea, but mainly South Korea.

Secure attachment reflects responsive, affectionate and tender, and positive relationship with children, which allows children to form a positive view of the world (Hamner & Turner, 1996; Shonkoff & Phillips, 2000).

Self-regulation is represented in this study as a young child's capacity to handle his/her feelings and how to respond to the situation flexibly, based on behavioral standards (Shonkoff & Phillips, 2000). Self-regulatory skills have implications for "how well children negotiate many other tasks of early childhood" (p. 115).

Social behavior is referred to as socialization from birth onward for the purpose of fulfilling intrinsic needs for companionship, stimulation, feedback, and a sense of belonging (Kostelnik, Whiren, Soderman, & Gregory, 2006).

Social competence is a complex and broad summary term that correlates the judgments of others with regards to what extent a person has adequately performed in a variety of social tasks. These tasks include a wide range of specific skills, such as independence skills, communication skills, and self-care skills (Merrell, 2002).

Social cooperation is defined as behavioral characteristics that are important in following instructions from adults, cooperating and compromising with peers, and showing appropriate self-restraint. These tasks are connected to the regulations that are typically imposed by parents, preschool teachers, and child care providers. It includes tasks such as following instructions from adults, using free time in an

acceptable way, taking turns with toys or other objects, and responding appropriately when corrected (Merrell, 2002).

Social independence is defined as behaviors and characteristics that are important in achieving social independence within the peer group domain, which involves separating appropriately from adult caregivers and showing appropriate confidence and positive assertiveness in interactions with peers (Merrell, 2002).

Social interaction reflects behaviors and characteristics that are imperative in gaining and maintaining acceptance and friendship from others such as standing up for other children's rights, having skills or abilities that are admired by peers, inviting other children to play (Merrell, 2002).

Social skills are the specific behaviors that an individual exhibits while performing a task competently such as adaptive and positive interrelated behaviors. The social skills in this study describe positive social skills, such as academic and task related competence, cooperation with peers, reinforcement of peers' behavior, and social initiation behaviors that are characteristics of well-adjusted children ages four through six years (Merrell, 2002).

Students in this study is a term referring to children in preschool and kindergarten whose ages range from three to six years.

Working mother is defined in this study as being employed for paid salary either full time or part time.

Limitations of the Study

This study investigated both the level of maternal stress and mother-perceived children's social behaviors of their preschool children. All the data provided by the mothers via surveys could be subjective because individuals have

varying backgrounds and experiences. Therefore, the first limitation is that survey participants might express their personal or prejudicial beliefs and thoughts concerning their children's social skills and behavioral problems.

Immigrant Korean participants in the U.S. and Korean participants in Korea may have different expectations for their children in terms of social skills and behavioral problems, which could be another limitation of this study. Immigrant Korean mothers residing in the U.S. are recruited from the six Korean Saturday Schools and the one private Korean child care within the North-Central Texas area, compared to Korean mothers residing in Korea recruited from the only private kindergartens in Seoul, Korea. Although the Korean Saturday Schools in the U.S. employ standard education programs similar to kindergarten curriculums in Korea, these programs tend to focus more on Korean language and culture. Therefore, immigrant Korean mothers in the U.S. might not be overly concerned about their children's social behavior as compared to Korean mothers in Korea whose children enrolled in a formal kindergarten curriculum which emphasizes teaching children basic daily life skills such as manners, orderliness, and restraint, as well as morality, community awareness, traditional cultural values (Lee, 1995).

The last limitation may be due to the specific population of immigrant Korean mothers who agreed to participate in the North Texas urban metropolitan area and the small number of subjects (N = 101) included in the study.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

The preschool years represent a critical period in social development when children begin to expand their social world (Howe, 1994; Kostelnik et al., 2006; O'Shea, 2004; Shonkoff & Phillips, 2000). Caregivers and child care environments place great important on the social development of young children. Parents, who are the first teachers of young children, play a major role in contributing to the social development of their children. Increasing the knowledge of how parents culturally impact the prosocial behavior of their children can be instrumental in helping with early identification of potential problems and developing appropriate interventions. Research has shown that there is a direct relationship between parents' stress and their children's social behavior (Fagan, 1989; Howe, 1994; Jurek, 1998; Podeschi, 1992; Yeh, 1989).

Lev Vygotsky (1978) believed that children learn how to do things or how to master certain things through the informal control or support from adults (i.e., scaffolding) such as conversations, questions, modeling, and guiding, which they might not learn by themselves (Berk & Winsler, 1995; Morrison, 2004). Vygotsky's theory stresses the interpersonal connection between the child and other important people (Gordon & Browne, 2000; Vygotsky, 1978). The implication for parents is that parent-child interactions support the motivation to learn and encourage children to adjust as a member of the social culture in early childhood. Shonkoff and Phillips (2000) denoted that "…since parenting and other environmental influences can moderate the development of inherited tendencies in children, efforts to assist parents and other caregivers to sensitively read a child's behavioral tendencies and to create a supportive context for the child are worthwhile" (p. 43).

As Erik Erikson (1950) observed, through establishing basic trust and autonomy from a high quality of the caregiver's behavior and guidance, particularly the mother, children may feel confident about venturing out as a first step to exploring the social world (Berk, 1998; Bigner, 2002; Klass, 1999; Santrock, 2002; Wilburn, 2000). When children are in the company of people they trust and like, when they feel supported and more receptive in their efforts to improve, and when they are freed to learn new things, they develop insights into their social and moral worlds (Berk, 1998; Kostelnik et al., 2006; Porter, 1999; Wilburn, 2000). Moreover, they develop the ability to manage their emotional and social behaviors to support social competencies including high self-esteem, self-regulation, and peer interaction during the preschool years (Berk, 1998; Kostelnik et al., 2006; Porter, 1999; Wilburn, 2000). According to Hart and Risely (1999), daily parent-child social interaction links children's social development in the early years. Interactions between mother and child are especially regarded as an important factor for child development. This implies that when children have a positive maternal attachment in childhood, their social skills such as self- esteem, self-regulation, and peer relationships would be advanced more rapidly.

Immigrant parents and their children may experience confusion, alienation, and general discomfort as they struggle to understand and acculturate into a new society while maintaining important elements of their own cultures (Adams & Kirova, 2007; Banks, 2005; Lynch, 2004). Such discomforts can bring immigrants overwhelming negative feelings such as withdrawal, anger, and frustration. Many immigrants typically experience the negative aspects of culture shock, adjustment stress, and sociocultural disruption, caused mainly by distinctively different cultural and social norms, limited English proficiency, and unique physical characteristics

such as different skin, hair, and eye colors (Ben-Sira, 1997; Hong & Hong, 1996; Kim & Honig, 1998; Lee & Westwood, 1996; Lynch, 2004; Yeh et al., 2005; Yost & Lucas, 2002). Because of the stress that immigrant parents experience based on cultural discontinuities, children's behavioral patterns and identities such as what is normal, right, and proper may be at stake because stressed parents may not interact and guide their children properly for a new cultural and social structure (Deater-Deckard, 1998; Olneck, 2001).

In general, it is important for young children to have positive relationships with caregivers so they can learn about people and the world. If children receive more considerate and supportive care, they are likely to view the world as trustworthy and relationships as safe and pleasurable (Berk, 1998; Shonkoff & Phillips, 2000). As children interact with the world based upon this positive environment, they can support themselves with more competent behavior and achievements. Based on the belief that maternal stress significantly affects child behavior, an examination of the relationships between the following areas will be conducted. The related literature is presented in eight sections: (a) stress; (b) effects of maternal stress (c) mother's parenting styles on child's behavior; (d) stress and young children; (e) challenges of immigrants in a new society; (f) challenges of Korean immigrants in America; (g) children's social behavior; and (h) links between stress, parenting behavior, and child's behavior.

Stress

The Concept of Stress

Stress is a common part of life which occurs in all kinds of events (Aldwin, 1994; Brenner, 1997; Humphrey, 2004; Humphrey, 2005; McNamara, 2000). Stress

has been the topic of intense concern by many psychologists over the past six decades (Cooper & Dewe, 2004; Doublet, 2000). The term “stress” is represented in many ways as some sort of force, pressure, or strain (Cooper & Dewe, 2004). Stress was described by Hans Selye (1956) as being the nonspecific response of the body to any specific demand (physical, emotional, intellectual) or challenge (Cooper & Dewe, 2004; Elkind, 2001; Humphrey, 2004; McEwen & Lasley, 2001). According to Selye, all situations, events, or people that cause stress are regarded as stressors, which inflict a feeling of anxiety, regardless of whether it is negative or positive (Elkind, 2001; Selye, 1956).

The pressures people confront in the modern world can cause an incredible amount of stress. This high-tech age threatens to impose upon the perceived control that humans have always assumed they had over their own lives (McEwen & Lasley, 2001). As an unintended consequence of these complications, stress has become ubiquitous in society of the 21st century (Bartlett, 1998; Kostelnik et al., 2006). The connotations of the word “stress” include hardship, adversity, affliction, as well as the use of force or pressure on another (Mazure & Druss, 1995). Stress, which arises at least partly from the increasingly fast pace of modern life, is an unpleasant physical sensation (McEwen & Lasley, 2001). Stress is viewed as an external condition of life (Aldwin, 1994; George, 1989). Stress is also regarded as a subjective state, in which the same life event may or may not be stressful depending upon its meaning for the individuals (Humphrey, 2004; Humphrey, 2005; McNamara, 2000).

Stress is defined in many different ways because it is an ambiguous concept that is best understood in a general terms. There are three categories of stress (Bartlett, 1998; Cassidy, 1999; Cooper & Dewe, 2004): (a) stimulus-based definition;

(b) response-based definition; and (c) interactional definition. The stimulus-based approach is associated with identifying stress as an aspect of the environment which causes an unpleasant effect in the individual (Bartlett, 1998). This category of research has mostly focused on working in noisy environments, which impose demands placed upon the person (Bartlett, 1998; Cassidy, 1999). Research in this perspective field has focused on identifying the sources of stress in the external world (Aldwin, 1994; Cassidy, 1999; George, 1989; Humphrey, 2004; Humphrey, 2005). The stimulus-based definition is limited to consensus among groups of individuals about the potential stressfulness of events, and they do not take into account individual differences in responses to the same events (Bartlett, 1998).

The second category of stress is known as the response-based approach. This type of stress is associated with stress experienced by a person and the identification of symptoms resulting from it (Barlett, 1998; Cassidy, 1999; Selye, 1956). Irritability, lack of energy, sleeplessness, headaches, and digestive ailments are some of the symptoms usually found in people suffering from this form of stress (Barlett, 1998; Cassidy, 1999). However, there are often variations in the same individual's responses to the same situation on different occasions (Bartlett, 1998; Humphrey, 2004; Humphrey, 2005; McNamara, 2000). In other words, a person may not always react to the same stressful situation in the same manner, in case the same situation occurs more than once. Interestingly, there is a general physiological reaction to all forms of stress, and people will respond to it in whichever way most benefits their own best interests. The limitation of this physiological model of stress, however, is that it ignores purely emotional or mental factors that can produce a wide range of ways that individuals respond to potentially stressful situations (Barlett, 1998; Cassidy, 1999).

The interactional definition is stress produced from the interactions between the person and their environment based on a model of the person as active and exercising in the process (Bartlett, 1998; Cassidy, 1999). Bartlett's research indicates that stress is a fusion of the stimulus and response models. This is labeled as the whole process from encountering stressful stimuli in the environment through to the response of the body with its accompanying physiological changes and the phenomenological experience of stress. As a transaction between the person and their environment, the interactional approach incorporates both stimulus and response perspectives as a part of a process (Cassidy, 1999). Conventional wisdom currently observes the general meaning of stress as the interactional model, which is sometimes called the Person-environment fit , or P-E fit (Bartlett, 1998; Cassidy, 1999).

Concept of Parenting Stress

Stress can affect the way parents relate to their children. The focus of attention in parenting stress research has primarily targeted major negative life changes (e.g., greater financial expense, less time to self, and possible job and income loss) (Crnic, Greenberg, Ragozin, Robinson, & Basham, 1983) or significant problematic circumstances (e.g., poverty and low SES) facing parents and families (Werner & Smith, 1982). All changes which require adaptation, even when they are positive changes, can cause some stress as parents try to accommodate the new demands made by change (McNamara, 2000). Stress has long played an essential role in understanding parenting processes and families in general (Crnic & Low, 2002; Deater-Deckard, 1998). Every good mother wants to be the best parent she can be, and wants the best for her children. For the most part, being a parent can be one of the happiest and most satisfying experiences of one's life. All parents,

however, also experience some levels of stress as they attempt to meet the challenges of caring for their children.

Parenting stress differs from the broader study of stress which considers stresses solely in terms of natural, societal, or personal catastrophes (Abidin, 1995; Ostberg & Haekull, 2000; Wishner, 2002). As a useful conceptualization for a particular type of stress, parenting stress occurs in everyday activities. Crnic and Low (2002) stated that many daily experiences with children are a source of joy or pleasure, and they provide parents with a sense of competence and confidence as individual challenges. Yet, parents can also feel confused, frustrated, or irritated at times by their children's behaviors and the overall daily tasks of parenthood. These situations can easily be perceived as stressful, which may influence dysfunctional parenting behavior and children's development both directly and indirectly (Abidin, 1992; Belsky, 1984; Crnic & Greenberg, 1990). Parenting is a complex process, made especially difficult by heterogeneity in children's characteristics, complexity of developmental processes, and continual demands for care giving (Crnic & Acedeco, 1995; Crnic & Low, 2002; Deater-Deckard, 1998).

Parenting stress has been observed to include negative feelings toward children and other parents, leading to depression, anger, and reduced marital intimacy (Crnic & Greenberg, 1990; Ritchie & Holden, 1998; Tomanik, Harris, & Hawkins, 2004). Several researchers also defined parenting stress as the parent's reaction to situational demands (i.e., stressors) that influence the parent-child system (Abidin, 1995: Boyce, Miehl, Mortensen & Alers, 1991; Deater-Deckard, 1998). This approach recognizes that stress can occur because of either negative or positive events. It is clear that not all parents are likely to find their parenting or children's behavior equally stressful. It may be stressful to care for a child who has a serious

cold, but it may be equally stressful to plan a happy event such as a child's birthday party (Wishner, 2002).

One of the most widely used indices of parenting stress is the Parenting Stress Index (PSI) (Abidin, 1995), which provides a useful conceptualization for parenting stress. Parenting stress measured by the PSI differs both conceptually and methodologically from the everyday stressor of parenting. The PSI focuses more on issues of general parental distress and children's difficulties, as well as dysfunctional parent-child relationships (Crnic & Low, 2002). Abidin (1995) stated that specific sources of parental stress may be related to personal characteristics of the child which prevent the child from meeting parental or community expectations. He noted that characteristics of the parent which limit parental functioning and contribute to feelings of inadequacy lead to parental stress as well.

Effect of Maternal Stress

The level of stress mothers perceive and experience while parenting has been recognized as one of the most imperative environmental contributors to a child's development (Berns, 1997; Huston, 2002). The degree of maternal stress that a mother experiences may be a critical determinant of positive maternal parenting behaviors and child adjustment (Pett, Vaughan-Cole, & Wampold, 1994). The feelings that mothers experience as a result of their perceptions relating to their parenting is known as "maternal parenting stress" (Huston, 2002). This is compounded when changes and demands associated with the mothering role exceed the resources available for handling those demands adequately (Huston, 2002). Huston mentioned that feeling overwhelmed, incompetent in the parenting role, or unhappy with one's life can all be symptoms of parenting stress. Parenting

stress predicts "…poor outcomes regardless of the outcome construct of interest" (Crnic & Acevedo, 1995, p. 280).

Women tend to be sensitive to stressors both in the home and work place because they have different psychological traits than men (Berns, 1997; Hofall, 1986). In accordance with those traits, women experience different role demands in the family, work place, and society in general. Although women are employed in all of the same fields of industry as men and are successful at all levels of expertise or authority, the roles of wife and mother in the home have not become any less demanding. Because mothers tend to spend more time with their children than fathers, their parenting stress may be more strongly linked to their children's development (Crnic & Acevedo, 1995; Crnic & Low, 2002).

As a normal response to certain types of stress, depression is considered to be a painful emotional reaction characterized by intense feelings of loss, sadness, worthlessness, failure, guilt, or rejection by an objective view of events (Dix, Gershoff, Meunier, & Miller, 2004; Humphrey, 2004; Humphrey, 2005). With the dramatic increase of women's participation in the workforce, care of children has remained as women's greatest responsibility (Equal Opportunities Commission, 2006; Guendouzi, 2006; Holcomb, 1998). Working mothers may experience the feeling of guilt caused by an insufficient amount of time to spend with their children and active relationships such as talking to them, helping them, and bonding with them (Chowdhury, 1995; Holcomb, 1998). This can result in a depressed mood for mothers (Guendouzi, 2006). "Depressed mothers show heightened levels of child-directed hostility and negativity, and their attempts to control child behavior are marked by coercion rather than by negotiation" (Duggal, Carlson, Sroufe, & Egeland, 2001, p. 146). Depressed women's maternal behavior is characterized as less responsive, more helpless,

hostile, critical, less active, and less competent (Patterson & Albers, 2001). These mothers are less involved in the activities of their children. Consequently, maternal depression affects an increased risk of depressive disorders in children (Duggal et al., 2001). According to a study by Graham and Easterbrooks (2000), "…approximately 10-15% of prebubertal children from the general population display moderate to severe depressive symptoms and 1-9% exhibit a major depressive disorder" (p. 201).

Mothers who report more parenting stress show less secure attachment relationships with their children (Hadadian & Merbler, 1996; Graham & Easterbrooks, 2000). The quality of the relationship between the mothers and their children is related to the child's later social development because mothers are usually the nurturing figure for children in society (Berk, 1998; Duggal et al., 2001; Hamner & Turner, 1996; Santrock, 2002; Shonkoff & Phillips, 2000). Children who develop secure attachments to their mothers tend to show more competent problem-solving skills as toddlers, more independent and confident behaviors with teachers as preschoolers, and more competent interactive behaviors with their peers at school than do other children (Dozier, Stovall, Albus, & Bates, 2001).

According to the attachment theory of John Bowlby (1969, 1982), the degree of mother-child sensitivity and responsibility forms the basis for the development of security (Bigner, 2002; Booth, Clarke-Stewart, Vandell, McCartney, & Owen, 2002) . The security of this attachment is important because it predicts children's subsequent peer relations, self-esteem, and behavioral problems (Bigner, 2002; Bowlby, 1969/82; Booth et al., 2002). Securely attached children are more likely to collaborate with their parental desires, and they are much more easily socialized (Ainsworth, Blehar, Waters, & Wall, 1978; Sclafani, 2004). However, mothers who

lack consistency in terms of attachments are more likely to have children who are more disorganized and resistant to intimacy (Dozier et al., 2001; Kretchmar & Jacobvitz, 2002). Children with insecure attachments to their mothers tend to have a greater risk for developing highly vulnerable depressive symptoms (Berk, 1998; Graham & Easterbrooks, 2000; Munson, Mcmahon, & Spieker, 2001; Patterson & Albers, 2001; Shonkoff & Phillips, 2000).

In a longitudinal study of 46 mothers and their children, aged two, and then again at age frive, Symons and Clark (2000) examined how attachment security and maternal sensitivity are related to maternal distress by using home based observations and a self-reported measure. They noted that mothers who experienced more emotional distress resulting from anxiety, depressive symptoms, and parental stress were more likely to avoid their parenting tasks. That omission influenced the children's lack of security, sensitivity, and emotional adjustment. The findings of this study indicated that a mother's capability to serve as a secure attachment is affected by her own parental stress level and degree of attention to the child.

Insecure attachment in young children with their mothers derives children's low self-esteem and difficulty learning to regulate emotions (Duggal et al., 2001; Kostelnik et al., 2006; Shonkoff & Phillips, 2000). According to Erikson's theory, as children can not count on the kindness and compassion of others, particularly their mother, they protect themselves by withdrawing from people and feel insecure about their ability to control their impulses (Berk, 1998; Bigner, 2002; Erikson, 1950; Santrock, 2002). This relates negatively in early childhood, causing guilt or low self-confidence, because they have been excessively threatened, criticized, and punished by adults (Berk, 1998; Bigner, 2002; Santrock, 2002). Therefore, the

insecure attachment results in "…a negative or distorted self-concept in which the child perceives him or herself or others to be deficient and the world to be hostile" (Graham & Easterbrooks, 2001, p. 202).

Children who have positive relationships with their parents learn how to express emotions appropriately and how to interact with others (Kostelnik et al., 2006; Shonkoff & Phillps, 2000). Shonkoff and Phillips mentioned that as young children acquire a better understanding of their emotions, they develop the self-regulation with respect to managing physiological arousal, emotions, and attention. Children who have low self-regulation are more prone to outbursts, inattention, and rapid retreats from stressful situations, which results in aggressive behavior in peer interactions (Laird, Jordan, Dodge, Pettit, & Bates, 2001; Lengua, 2002; Shonkoff & Phillips, 2000). Ideally, parents and caregivers should maintain a secure attachment in order to eliminate potential disruptive behaviors (e.g., aggression, noncompliance) of their children. Having a safe environment and being introduced to productive peer relationships can affect the social development of young children.

Mothers' Parenting Styles on Child Behavior

In order to maximize the potential for children's development, in terms of the mother-child relationship, it is important to consider an effective and wholesome style of maternal parenting (Darling, 1999; Kerka, 2000). Although parents love their children unconditionally, their methods of child rearing and interacting with their children might not be the optimum way to make their children feel secure. While some mothers take a more decisively relaxed approach to parenting, there are others who are far too firm with the expectations that they have for their young children. Therefore, mothers tend to experience a disproportion of negative

interaction with their children while parenting based on their vocational interests and choices (Darling, 1999; Kerka, 2000). Either way, a trend toward stressed mother-child relationships can be established from an early age, if the mother does not carefully consider her parenting methods. In other words, a mothers' perception of the relationship heavily influences her behavior toward her children (Berns, 1997; Kerka, 2000).

The most orthodox models of parenting related to children's behavior, as noted in the research of parenting styles by Baumrind (1966, 1975), are three parental control types: authoritative, authoritarian, and permissive (Berns, 1997; Darling, 1999; Sclafani, 2004). Mothers who utilize authoritative parenting styles used the term empathic goals, which could be seen as reflecting a desire to maintain their warm, involved, and responsive behavior for the child's needs, and to provide clear standards for their children's behaviors (Baumrind, 1966; Baumrind, 1975; Darling, 1999; Sclafani, 2004; Smetana, 1994). Children of authoritative mothers tend to be good self-managers to cope with stress and to handle problems they face in their various social situations (Sclafani, 2004). This suggests that children who are raised by mothers with the above mentioned qualities are more socially competent than those without authoritative mothers (Baumrind, 1966; Baumrind, 1975; Coplan, Hastings, Lagace-Seguin, & Moulton, 2002; Darling, 1999; Kerka, 2000).

In contrast, the authoritarian mothers are described as non-responsive and highly demanding, since they expect obedient behaviors from their children without considering their children's feelings (Baumrind, 1966; Baumrind, 1975; Coplan et al., 2002; Darling, 1999; Smetana, 1994). Children who are raised in this power-intensive parenting style are more likely to be aggressive in their peer interactions and show a relatively low frequency of social engagement (Rose-Krasnor, Rubin,

Booth, & Coplan, 1996). Because of their anxiety and lack of coping, caused by fearful, moody, and unhappy feelings, children of authoritarian parents are quite vulnerable to stress (Sclafani, 2004). Even though children of authoritarian mothers do not tend to display behavioral problems, they do have poorer social skills, lower self-esteem, and higher levels of depression than children of authoritative mothers (Darling, 1999).

The other type of parenting styles that Baumrind defined as “permissive” describes parents as being responsive, yet non-demanding towards their children (Baumrind, 1966; Baumrind, 1975; Darling, 1999; Smetana, 1994). The permissive parents behave in a nonpunitive manner towards the child’s impulses, desires, and actions because they view children as free spirits (Berns, 1997; Sclafani, 2004). Therefore, children of permissive parents are generally aimless, living with unclear directions, and lacking any self-control or self-confidence (Sclafani, 2004). Children of those mothers are more likely to become disciplinary problems to authority figures, such as school teachers, but they also have higher self-esteem, better social skills, and lower levels of depression (Darling, 1999).

Many researchers noticed that the styles of parenting implemented by mothers have a direct impact on children’s development, which is why these types of studies are useful for determining the most positive child-rearing practices, with regard to children’s behavior (Coplan et al., 2002; Zhou, Eisenberg, Wang, & Reiser, 2004). The studies, based upon two particular parenting styles (such as authoritative and authoritarian), indicated that authoritative parents were associated with more positive maternal disciplinary styles and the emergence of competence of their children; while, authoritarian parenting was associated with children’s high dispositional anger or frustration as negative social functioning.

The role that mothers have in the area of child behavior and development is that of the expressive-affection leader of the family. Because mothers are obligated to guide interaction with their children, it is possible that maternal behavior derives the predictability of positive interactions (Weinfield, Ogawa, & Egeland, 2002). Through a positive relationship with their mothers, young children acquire the ability to learn necessary social lessons in early childhood. Generally, when mothers maintain a secure attachment and avoid disruptive parental behaviors, their children can develop social behavior and grow up to become more secure and responsible adults. Introducing a safe environment to young children and eliminating destructive relationships can facilitate the most positive social development of young children who are reared in various environments.

Stress and Young Children

Experiencing stress is normal for children (Brenner, 1997; Hale, 1998; Kostelnik et al., 2006). Since wide individual differences persist throughout life, child's stress is experienced in many forms and varies by the individual, the child's developmental level, and the child's previous life experiences (Elkind, 2001; Jewett & Peterson, 2002). In the process of adaptation from birth, children are being pressured to grow up faster into academic achievement or into making decisions (Brenner, 1997; Elkind, 2001; Hale, 1998; Kostelnik et al., 2006). For example, stress occurs when children are expected to accomplish certain type of demands, but perceive themselves not capable of doing them (Brenner, 1997; Elkind, 2001). When children perceive their inability to achieve an expected level of success as a personal failure, the result is the development of stress symptoms (Elkind, 2001).

Many studies support the notion that childhood stress triggers both behavioral disorders and increased psychological adjustment problems which result in a variety of ways, such as depression and avoidance, excessive shyness, hyper-vigilance, excessive worrying, and “freezing up” in social situations (Humphrey, 2004; Jewett & Peterson, 2002; Pincus & Friedman, 2004; Rutter, 1994). Preschoolers are developmentally less capable of comprehending an event separately from their own feelings or thinking about an anxiety-including event in its entirety (Allen & Marotz, 2003; Jewett & Peterson, 2002). Due to a lack of adaptability to new situations, young children are more overwhelmed and vulnerable than adults when they are overloaded with stress or faced with unexpected and impulsive change in their life (Kostelnik et al., 2006). Whether the new situations are positive or negative, if children can not adapt to the changes, a variety of negative consequences could occur, such as physical, psychological, or behavioral problems (Fallin, Wallinga, & Coleman, 2001; Humphrey, 2004; Humphrey, 2005; Kostelnik et al., 2006; Marion, 2003). Physical problems include uncomfortable temperature, rapid heartbeat, or a painful injury. Psychological problems comprise feeling ignored, neglected, or rejected. Behavioral problems include acting out of character, aggressive or defensive outbursts, and changes in their sleep and speech patterns (Fallin et al., 2001; Humphrey, 2004; Humphrey, 2005; Kostelnik et al., 2006; Marion, 2003).

External stress or stress formed outside of ourselves (caused by family, friends, school) is harmful to children's development, but is not as significant as internal stress (Hale, 1998). The phrase “internal stress” refers to the stress that is within us, which is an internal pressure of sorts. People create their own set of rules for themselves and when they feel that they have broken these rules, they are

confronted with internal stress (Hale, 1998; Humphrey, 2004; Humphrey, 2005). For instance, children who are expected to succeed academically and excel in other activities in which they are enrolled may experience intense frustration, which leads to stress. These academic and social pressures based on parents' high expectations may create stressful situations for children, ranging from mild to overwhelming (Hale, 1998). To satisfy their parents, children are urged to hurry at an early age and hence exhibit many of the symptoms associated with stress, such as emotional problems, psychosomatic complaints, or hyperactive behavior (Brenner, 1997; Elkind, 2001; Hale, 1998; Kostelnik et al., 2006).

Researchers concluded that when sources of stress increase concurrently, children experience more pressure since all stressors surrounding them influence children more vulnerable on stress (Jewett & Peterson, 2002; Kostelnik et al., 2006; Brenner, 1997). As demonstrated in the ecological model by Bronfenbrenner (1979, 1986), all social contexts are interconnected with one another, and children are socialized in the interactions between all micro-, meso-, and macrosystems (Berns, 1997; Bigner, 2002; Brenner, 1997; Kostelnik et al, 2006; Yakushko & Chronister, 2003). According to this model, children are affected by the relationship with their immediate environments in a particular setting such as family, school, peer group, or community, which is called "microsystem" as the first basic structure of the model (Berns, 1997; Bigner, 2002; Brenner, 1997; Kostelnik et al, 2006). Microsystem comprises four dimensions (Kostelnik et al., 2006): (a) physical space and materials (e.g., objects, space); (b) people (i.e., all of whom affect one another); (c) roles (e.g., parent, wage-earner, and comforter); (d) activities (e.g., nurturance, home maintenance, and socialization).

The mesosystem includes the quality of interrelationships among two or more of a person's contexts, such as the family and the school, or family and the peer groups (Berns, 1997; Bigner, 2002; Brenner, 1997; Kostelnik et al, 2006). For example, any substantial abuse problem at home will not only affect the child's relationships within the family setting, but will also influence relationships within the child's school setting (Bigner, 2002; Kostelnik et al, 2006). Finally, the macrosystem constrains the societal and cultural values surrounding the children and their family which can create pride or shame, or stereotyping or prejudice based on ethnicity or religion (Berns, 1997; Bigner, 2002; Brenner, 1997; Kostelnik et al, 2006). As an example of macrosystem, people in a particular society have similar perceptions regarding life styles, resources available to them, and patterns of social interchange. Based on their perceptions, they constitute their own form of macrosystem (Kostelnik et al, 2006). Since all these social contexts interact with one another in various social environments, children become potentially stressed when the elements in their familial system are destructive (Kostelnik et al, 2006). Therefore, it is imperative for child caregivers to understand the causes and symptoms of stress which children exhibit in their daily environments and provide a consistent child care support to make them feel secure.

Many immigrant children, as the macrosystem demonstrates, experience a certain degree of change, caused mainly by distinctive cultural, ethnic, and religious values (Chu, 1993; Fong, 2004; Herwartz-Emden, Kuffner, & Landgraf, 2007). With new surroundings and continuous challenges during every child's development, children with an immigrant background should be assimilated into the host country's mainstream, while maintaining important elements of their native cultures (Banks 1997; Banks, 2005; Olneck, 2001). It is a serious challenge for immigrant children to

face specific additional learning in various areas and experience some types of stressors in a new society through integrating new cultures, norms, and behavior patterns (Aldwin, 1994; Herwartz-Emden et al., 2007; Sheets, 2005). Several studies discovered that immigrant children are more distressed than non-immigrant children, with greater problems of low self-esteem, poor concentration, nervousness, physical illnesses, and psychological disorders because of failure to fulfill assimilative work with their immersion in the host country's language and culture (Bagely, 1972; Eppink, 1979; Herwartz-Emden et al., 2007).

Children of immigrants are aware of the importance of education from an early age because parents focus more on their academic success rather than individual differences or creativity so that they can become productive members of society in the future (Elkind, 2001; Suarez-Orozco & Suarez-Orozco, 2001). Therefore, these children are likely to be rushed to accomplish the goals of their parents. This may result in an emotional burden for these children and cause conflict with their parents as well (Elkind, 2001). However, some studies did not find significant differences between immigrant and non-immigrant groups in terms of behavioral disorders, and the relationships between parental behaviors and children's stress (Chiu et al., 1992; Munroe-Blum et al., 1989; Yao et al., 1988). Interestingly, Herwartz-Emden and other researchers (2007) have reported better rates of self-concept among children of immigrant backgrounds relative to non-immigrant children because they are better able to incorporate discontinuities in their academic performance.

The implication from research studies is that in different cultures and ethnic groups, some research studies showed inconsistent findings regarding the impact of immigration on these expected correlations between parental behavior and child

outcomes. In short, there is little attention given to the children of immigrant parents and their stress through the acculturative process because they are shown to be well-adjusted under adverse circumstances as opposed to their immigrant parents (Brenner, 1997). However, there are numerous children who are vulnerable as a result of poor coping skills or the unavailability of adequate support systems (Brenner, 1997). Due to these unsettling findings, more research in this area of study should be conducted for the sake of our future generation.

Developmentally Appropriate Practice (DAP) in early childhood programs implemented by the National Association for the Education of Young Children (NAEYC) emphasized the importance of how children develop and learn from birth through age 8 and beyond, based on: (a) age appropriateness, indicating universal, predictable sequences of growth and change that occur in children; and (b) individual appropriateness, representing a unique person with an individual pattern and timing (Bredekamp & Copple, 2002). With the increase of immigrant population in the U.S., cultural appropriateness is another main idea for young children. Cultural discontinuity, caused by limited cultural knowledge bases, is a source of inadvertent neglect by teachers to understand certain needs of students with different cultural values (Ladson-Billings, 1994; Ladson-Billings, 2000). To serve better individual understanding, Ladson-Billings (2000) highlighted the connection of curriculum with cultural references in all aspects of learning based on unique needs and strengths in their multicultural differences.

Challenges of Immigrants in a New Society

The shock of a new culture is stressful for new immigrants because it is easy for them to become frustrated from their inability to gather information, solve

problems, and make decisions in a society which is different from their country of origin based on values and beliefs (Lynch, 2004; Smith, Quinn, & Cooper, 1998; Yost & Lucas, 2002). In fact, wealthy immigrants who are skilled English speakers also experience an adjustment period, and they encounter a variety of hardships during this time based on culture (Lynch, 2004): (a) language barriers; (b) systems barriers; and (c) sociopolitical barriers. The language barrier is the first hardship that new immigrants experience. Conversing in a second language requires more effort to communicate, and immigrants may be frustrated by difficulties in English (Harris-Hastick, 1996; Lynch, 2004; Ribando, 2002). Misunderstandings caused by the language barrier impacts passive involvement of immigrants in the mainstream of society, which may result in isolation and loss of social networks because of the stressful aspect of immigration (Al-Issa, 1996; Bensira, 1997).

Another hardship that new immigrants face is the systems barrier. A lack of systems that are accustomed to serving the needs of immigrant families fail to provide information that facilitates immigrants' awareness about their new environment causes barriers and discourages their involvement in the community (Derman-Sparks, 1993; Lynch, 2004; Ribando, 2002). For example, immigrant parents who have children attending school may receive insufficient responses to their needs from the school such as counseling for their educational, behavioral, and social progress, because parents are not familiar with the education system in a new country and schools also may not be organized to be responsive to cultural differences (Derman-Sparks, 1993; Bush Center in Child Development and Social Policy, 2003; Lynch, 2004).

The third barrier encountered by many immigrant families is known as sociopolitical barriers, which prevent families from accessing the support and

services that they need (Lynch, 2004). Immigrants are not always welcomed in a new country because there are negative stereotypes, unfounded suspicions, and lack of knowledge on diversity toward people from some other countries (Derman-Sparks, 1993; Lynch, 2004). Immigrant families in the U.S., as an example, are more likely to have difficulty receiving appropriate social services or welfare benefits because of their limited English and ambiguous legal status (Ribando, 2002; Xu, 2005). It is not at all uncommon for immigrants of various backgrounds and status to have difficulties in acquiring assistance, due in part to their inability to communicate their needs adequately to service providers (Ribando, 2002; Xu, 2005).

While adjusting to the aforementioned difficulties in a new society, immigrants struggle with painful experiences such as alienation and general discomforts caused by many unique and problematic situations (Bensira, 1997; Kuo, 1976; Miranda & Matheny, 2000; Torres & Rollock, 2004). All of these experiences are associated with the stress of immigrants. Many researchers found that immigration is a stressful process because higher levels of burden and an assortment of conflicts associated with immigration are correlated positively with stress (Espino, 1991; Kuo, 1976; Miranda & Matheny, 2000; Segal, 1991; Yet et al, 2005). A necessity exists for educators to make efforts in support of immigrants' integration into their new society, which can only occur by having an understanding of the unique circumstances encountered by immigrants

Immigrants are confronted with specific problems following the immigration experience, as a result of confusion caused by the differences in their own familiar native culture and the foreign culture of their new society. Immigrants have their traditional family beliefs and priorities from their country of origin (Klein & Chen, 2001; Lynch, 2004), and they tend to have difficulties maintaining their culture as a

point of reference for parenting (Lynch, 2004; Rodd, 1996). With regard to sleeping patterns, for example, the U.S. mainstream culture considers independent sleeping of young children as an important milestone to establish the child's independence from an early age, while there is less concern for a child to sleep alone in Asian culture. The vast differences between cultures inspire uncomfortable parenting and loss of cultural identity in the adapted society (Rodd, 1996). Therefore, the lack of parenting guidance in a new society may facilitate inconsistent child rearing behaviors, causing unexpected parent-children interactions (Chang & Myers, 1997; Klein & Chen, 2001; Rodd, 1996).

Past studies indicate that parents who experience stressful life events following immigration have less positive relationships with their children, and their children tend to show behavioral problems (Kim & Greene, 2003; Klein & Chen, 2001; Short & Johnston, 1997; Webster-Stratton, 1990). The potential for destructive situations many children face in life are associated with their academic, social, and emotional competence, so more attention is required to avoid unnecessary suffering in these children's lives (Ribando, 2002). In general, multicultural understanding of others from different backgrounds will support immigrants to be better socialized into the new society (Banks, 1997; Banks, 2002; Rodd, 1966)

Challenges of Korean Immigrants in America

Confucianism of the Traditional Korean Family

Confucianism has dominated mainstream Korean culture and tradition for over 500 years, and it has strongly influenced the behaviors and attitudes of all Koreans (Hurh, 1998; Kim, 1998; Min, 1998a). In Korea, Confucianism is not considered to be a religion, rather it is viewed as a way of life. The main point of

Confucianism is social order and harmony, especially amongst family (Kim, 1998; Min, 1998a; Vegdahl & Hur; 2005). According to Confucianism, the five categories of human relationships were specified as (Vegdahl & Hur; 2005): (a) between father and son (son's respect and devotion to father); (b) between ruler and subjects (loyalty of subject to king); (c) between husband and wife (obedience of wife to husband); (d) between elder and younger (youth's respect to elders); and (e) between friends (trust and loyalty). All types were based on the hierarchical interpersonal relationships concerning the duties and obligation of each individual, except the relationship with friends, which is a horizontal or equal relationship (Hurh, 1998; Min, 1998a; Vegdahl & Hur; 2005).

Confucian tradition has implied an ideology of male dominance. The unfortunate outcome of this tradition has led to a reduced value in the woman's role in Korean society. A Korean woman has little power to make decisions regarding family affairs, including her children's education. She is confirmed to the duties of a submissive wife and a sacrificial mother (Kim, 1998; Min, 1998a). The male-centered and patriarchal family of Confucianism is represented as the belief *Namjon Yubi* ("Men are honored, but women are abased") in traditional Korea. Women are regarded as being inferior and incompetent compared to men (Kim, 1998; Park, 1997). Consequently, the traditional Confucian value based on gender inequality eliminated women's participation in society outside the family and restricted it within the family to such a degree that women lacked the basic human right of decision-making. It has become impossible for Korean women to make independent judgments on even the least significant of issues such as determining or deciding the child's after school program (Park, 1997).

Children within the Confucian framework have been obligated to show respect toward their parents and all other adults through non-mutual obedience (Min, 1998b). Initially, at least, the impact of Confucianism has resulted in high accomplishments in relation to children and education in Korea (Chan & Lee, 2004). Historically, a high level of success in the achievement of Korean education led to a great shift in the social structure. This shift has created a notion of *Yang Ban* (aristocratic ruling class) in Korea, which became an important theme in the history of Korean tradition (Clark, 2000; Kim, 1998). Parents focused on the importance of their children's education with such a high level of intensity, that little or no emphasis was placed on the value of social harmony (Kim, 1998).

Adjustment of Immigrant Korean Women in the U.S.

The adjustments of Korean immigrant women in the United States are quite difficult because adaptation requires a fundamental alteration in the relationships between their husbands, parents, children, and society (Jo, 1999). Korean immigrants remain devoted to Confucian values because Confucianism is understood to be a guide for the proper way to live their lives (Kim, 1998; Clark, 2000). For example, even Christian Korean churches in the U.S. follow the Confucian rules governing common expectations and obligations among members, and between members and their religious leaders (Clark, 2000). Therefore, immigrant Korean women in the U.S. have experienced cultural conflicts between the dominant culture and social changes in the American socio-cultural setting as well as their religious changes (Hong & Hong, 1996; Kim, 1998).

There is a noticeable contrast that exists between the families of Korean immigrants and their American counterparts, which may account for the obvious range in stress experienced by each. First of all, immigrant Korean women struggle

with conflicting pressures between two forces: to preserve traditional Confucian culture and to adapt to social changes for survival (Kim, 1998). For example, immigrant Korean women need to maintain their hierarchical relationships as someone's daughter, wife, or mother, not as individuals, and to work outside the home for economical necessity as well. This conflict and confusion can exacerbate immigrant Korean women's stress which they experience in the process of child rearing and adjusting to a new culture (Chung, 2001; Park, 2001). The language barrier is another challenge for immigrant Korean women (Hong & Hong, 1996; Jo, 1999; Park, 1997). Despite high levels of education, many suffer from a language deficiency which causes avoidance to joining various social and voluntary groups in the community (Jo, 1999; Park, 1997). This often leads to low self-esteem, as well as a large gap between the mothers and their children due to the limited ability to communicate effectively in English (Chang & Myers, 1997; Jo, 1999; Hong & Hong, 1996).

The other difference is that Korean families are perceived to place greater emphasis on their children's education than American families (Min, 1998a). Under the Confucian ideology, heated educational competition has been increasing amongst Korean communities inside the U.S. Therefore, Korean mothers had to make personal sacrifices for their children's achievement from an early age so that they can go to better schools which will lead to increased opportunities (Kim, 1998; Jo, 1999; Min, 1998a). This phenomenon tends to cause many social problems such as parents' heavy financial burden, prolonged pressure, and children's arbitrary academic achievement without consideration for socialization (Min, 1998b).

All aforementioned characteristics contribute heavily to tension and conflicts with which immigrant Korean mothers have trouble dealing. A pervasive source of

stress that has been observed to exist within the Korean immigrant communities of the U.S. is the constant struggle between tradition and convention. As Korean immigrant women try to be in harmony with traditional values and new cultural values, tension increases continuously. Despite the fact that not all of Korean immigrant mothers experience tension for these reasons, most of them seem to experience one or more of these conflicts at some point (Jo, 1999).

Adjustment of Immigrant Korean Children in the U.S.

With a strong emphasis on Confucian ideology, traditional Korean parents demand absolute obedience from their children even after immigration to the U.S. (Hong & Hong, 1996; Jo, 1999; Min, 1998b). Therefore, children experience conflicts and confusion between their parents' belief and the new social standards in American mainstream culture as well as identity conflict, which affects their self-esteem (Hong & Hong, 1996; Jo, 1999; Min, 1998b). Added to that, the presence of a language barrier between parents and children causes a lack of communication, and consequently the children's problems are multiplied and often neglected (Hong & Hong, 1996).

The trait with the most significant contrast on child socialization between Koreans and Americans is that Korean parents tend to focus more on child's education than American parents, since they still value education as a means of social mobility (Jo, 1999; Min, 1998a). Instead of considering children's individual differences and abilities according to developmental stages, Korean parents demand that their children excel in academic work and professional careers (Hong & Hong, 1996; Jo, 1999; Yagi & Oh, 1995). They often put an overwhelming amount of pressure on their children to succeed academically. There is no autonomy, only authority in this system. An unintended consequence of this is a developing sense of

guilt and worthlessness in children when they are not able to satisfy their parents' wishes, and it may cause them to suffer from desperation (Hong & Hong, 1996; Kim & Omizo, 1996; Lee & Cynn, 1991). Ultimately, it may deter the Korean-American children to establish their self-confidence and develop their own identity in the U.S. (Hong & Hong, 1996; Kim & Omizo, 1996).

Children's Social Behavior

From the moment of birth, humans are social creatures. Without social interactions no one would survive, especially infants without the support of caregivers. Individuals act in social situations and they are influenced by social processes (Kostelnik et al., 2006; honkoff & Phillips, 2000). According to Vygotsky (1978), children learn and develop their ideas from social and cultural influences (Berk, 1998; Morrison, 2001; Morrison, 2004; Santrock, 2002). Vygotsky believed that children's social development is obtained from experiences in social and cultural backgrounds which could be shared with other members within a *zone of proximal development* ("A range of tasks too difficult for the children to do alone but that can be accomplished with the help of others") (Vygotsky, 1978). Social behavior is learned as children react to their environment and the people in it (Kostelnik et al., 2006; Shonkoff & Phillips, 2000). As children constantly act upon their environment, they learn ways of responding, reacting, and behaving in social situations according to their current level of understanding. They also learn how others respond and react to their social behaviors through observing their social interaction (Kostelnik, 2006; Shonkoff & Phillips, 2000).

During the preschool period, young children's social and emotional development is apparent in their play, peer interaction, prosocial behavior,

aggression, and self-regulation (Bredekamp & Copple, 2002). During this period, children develop self-concept and sense of positive self-esteem which is strongly associated with their social competence if they maintain appropriate behaviors with others (Bredekamp & Copple, 2002). However, young children can also become quickly discouraged if they experience repeated disapproval, failure, or frustration (Bredekamp & Copple, 2002; Stacks & Goff, 2004). According to a study by Campbell (1995), approximately 10-15% of preschool children have mild to moderate behavioral difficulties on psychiatric symptom checklists. Therefore, it is imperative for caregivers to support behaviors in preschool children's social activities. (Bredekamp & Copple, 2002). For this present study, children's social behavior is classified into two categories of behavior, social skills and behavioral problems.

Social Skills

Social skills are defined as a set of behaviors that lead to desirable social outcomes, such as cooperation, assertion, responsibility, empathy, and self-control (Melloy, Davis, Wehby, Murry, & Leiber, 1998; Merrell, 2002). These tasks include a wide range of specific competencies, such as independence skills, communication skills, and self-care skills (Merrell, 2002). Social competence refers to "…an evaluative term based on judgments that a person has performed a task adequately" (Melloy et al., 1998, p. 3). Social skills, however, are the more specific behaviors that an individual exhibits while performing a task competently (Merrell, 2002). Among the entire dimension of social competences, social skills such as social cooperation, social interaction, and social independence as recommended by Merrell have been investigated for the current study. Recently, more interest in social skills has focused on the development of positive behaviors into a constructive repertoire, as well as the elimination of negative behaviors (Melloy et al., 1998).

Combs and Slaby defined children's social skills as

The ability to interact with others in a given social contact in specific ways that are societally acceptable or valued and at the same time and personally beneficial, mutually beneficial or beneficial primarily to others (1977, p. 162),

Foster and Ritchey provided the following definition:

> Those responses, which within a given situation, prove effective, or in other words, maximize the probability of producing, maintaining, or enhancing positive effects for the interactor (1979, p. 626).

A contemporary description of social skills has been offered by Gresham (1986) as three constructs: (a) peer-acceptance; (b) behavioral response; and (c) social validity. In terms of "peer-acceptance," children are regarded as being socially skilled when they are accepted by their peers in school and/or community. Hence, a child who is poorly accepted or unpopular is considered to be as socially unskilled. The term "behavioral response" implies that when children exhibit certain levels of behaviors which are not deficient or excessive, they are identified as being socially skilled. Another method used to explain the idea of social skills is the term known as the social validity. This is a mixture of peer acceptance and behavioral response. Many experts in the field of social behavior tend to support this definition, in terms of its use regarding criterion-related social behavior (Gresham, 1986).

According to Erikson's (1950) point of view, children's social skills develop within the context of society and in response to societal demands, expectations, values, and social institutions based on their developmental changes (Berk, 1998; Bigner, 2002; Morrison, 2001; Morrison, 2004). He believed that once children feel secure with their parents and have a sense of autonomy, they devote much attention to discovering what they can accomplish in their environment, which is strongly

related to a high sense of self-esteem. Consequently, effective communication and better understanding of others' feelings is obligatory for early childhood because displaying skill in peer-interactions is important for developing social skills (Berk, 1998; Bigner, 2002).

Researchers maintained that everyday experiences in relationships with their parents and peers are fundamental to children's later development of social skills (Cohn, Patterson, & Christopoulous, 1991; Phillipsen, Bridges, McLemore, & Saponro, 1999). A study by Phillipsen et al. (1999) revealed that having friends is extremely important for children's psychological well-being. They found that social behaviors, such as lack of social skills, lack of friendships, and withdrawn behavior, are strongly linked to children's and adult's perceptions of low peer acceptance. As a result of this research, it was determined that parents should encourage children's interactions with peers in order to improve social skills. Children who lack peer-acceptance would have fewer opportunities to learn normal adaptive models of social construction, culture, and behavior.

Compared with non-immigrants, immigrant children tend to display deficiencies in competences and self-esteem because of an uncertainty about cultural norms (Herwartz-Emden et al, 2007; Pawliuk et al., 1996). In the process of acculturation, immigrant children may feel unaccepted by peers because of language barriers, racial differences, and anti-bias attitudes and behaviors (Derman-Sparks, 1993). These poorly accepted children tend to become more exposed to adjustment problems later in life since they failed to refine new skills such as making contact, maintaining positive interactions, and negotiating conflicts (Herwartz-Emden et al., 2007; Kostelnik et al., 2006). If a negative status is developed, helping the child become accepted may require more than a change in the child's behavior. Therefore,

educating children in a diverse society characterized by contrasting cultural, ethnic, racial, and language differences is valuable for them to change uncomfortable and inappropriate responses into respectful and positive interactions (Banks, 1997; Banks, 2002; Derman-Sparks, 1993). Consequently, preschoolers will gain the self-confidence to stand up for themselves and others against discrimination, which is necessary for them to respond to others in positive ways (Derman-Sparks, 1993).

Child Behavioral Problems

Contrary to various works completed on the topic of child social skills, an approach has been developed for the purpose of classifying behavioral and emotional problems in children (Merrell, 2002). Child behavioral and emotional disorders are conceptualized across two general categories: (a) externalizing behaviors, which consist of delinquent and aggressive behaviors; and (b) internalizing behaviors, which are reflective of internal states like anxiety, depression and withdrawal (Merrell, 2002; Stacks & Goff, 2006). These behavioral problems are not clearly distinguished, but overlap in individual cases. The externalizing dimension of problematic behavior is more easily identified through observation than the internalizing dimension. Externalizing behavioral problems of young children are known to change into serious conduct problems, disruptive behavior disorders, and antisocial behaviors, if not treated (Merrell, 2002)

Behavioral problems in young children are common and temporary, and frequently relate to developmental factors. For young children, many behavioral problems arise simply because they do not know what is socially acceptable and what is expected of them. This confusion is also very real for immigrant students whose home culture and school culture values clash, which is called “mismatched” (Hurh, 1998; Renninger & Snyder, 1983). For example, they may be discouraged to

do certain things at home, yet encouraged to do those very same things at school. Many non-verbal communication gestures and facial expressions can be misinterpreted. Often, even if children know what behaviors are acceptable or expected, they are not necessarily capable of producing them at certain stages in their development (Papatheodorou, 2005).

Keane and Calkins (2004) conducted a longitudinal analysis in order to observe developmental outcomes related to the peer social status of children who had early parent-reported behavioral problems. These were children who displayed disruptive behaviors such as aggressive play, refusal to share with peers, and sneakiness, among other negative traits. Keane and Calkins determined that the best predictor of adult adaptation is not IQ or grades, but rather the adequacy with which a child gets along with others. Children who are generally disliked (due to aggressive and/or disruptive behavior), and are unable to sustain close relationships with others are seriously at risk (Kostelnik et al., 2006).

The most aggressive children are more likely to report unhappy feelings and difficult social interactions (Sprott & Doob, 2000). Sprott and Doob's experiments study by using a representative sample of 3,434 10 and 11 year old children showed that children who show aggressive behaviors do not have high self-esteem and the intensity of their aggression. These children were also measured to determine their level of self-esteem. The authors stated that "…very aggressive children were more likely than the other children to report having negative relations with friends, and to perceive their parents as rejecting them, and their teachers as being unfair" (Sprott & Doob, 2000, p. 129). Therefore, it can be said that very aggressive children are at a social disadvantage, due to their deficiency of social skills.

Problematic behaviors such as physical aggression, self-injury, property destruction, defiance, and tantrums are major barriers to effective educational and social development (Bigner, 2002; Horner, Carr, Strain, & Todd, 2002). Young children who engage in these problematic behaviors are at increased risks for expulsion and isolation from educational settings, social relationships, typical home environments, and community activities (Horner et al., 2002; Kostelnik et al., 2006). Papatheodorou (2005) acknowledged that some problems do persist for considerable periods of time throughout the preschool years and can prove to be long-lasting if no help is given. He stated that children who exhibit problems at an early age tend to exhibit more behavioral problems in later childhood and adulthood. Behavioral problems are pervasive; therefore, once behavioral problems become a well-known part of a child's behavioral repertoire, these problems are not likely to decrease in the absence of intervention. Unless there are changes in the value of behavioral problems, there should not be an expectation that behavioral problems will decrease (Horner et al., 2002).

Links Between Stress, Parenting Behavior, and Child's Behavior

The cumulative impact of parents' perceived stress has a destructive impact on parent behavior towards their children (Abidin, 1995; Belsky, 1984; Deater-Dekard, 1998; Hamner & Turner, 1996). Across an extensive range of stressors and diverse groups of parents, there is a strong linkage between the experience of stress and poorer parenting behavior such as higher amounts of harsh, negative, and inconsistent parenting (Deater-Dekard, 1998). Although there are some findings which are contrary to each other, all results are consistent with the finding that maternal stress leads to a lack of attention directed towards the child development.

Thus, stressed parents have a tendency to be less involved with their children (Patterson & Capaldi, 1991; Crnic & Acevedo, 1995; Crnic & Greenberg, 1990).

Many studies found that a parent's emotional well-being is associated with warm and consistent parenting behavior (Bigras & LaFreniere, 1993; Teti, Gelfand, Messinger, & Isabella, 1995). The findings supported the notion that stress is associated with maternal behaviors. The stressed mothers were more susceptible to children's disruptive behaviors, such as aggression and rebellion against authority figures. Moreover, studies of depressed parents have identified various negative behavioral consequences (Duggal et al., 2001; Patterson & Albers, 2001; Teti et al., 1995). Mothers with highly stressed and depressed showed fewer positive and more negative facial expressions, more impulsive behavior, lower levels of affection, and greater displays of hostility and disengagement (Duggal et al., 2001; Patterson & Albers, 2001; Teti et al., 1995). Across these studies, effects of parenting stress provide convincing evidence that everyday stresses of parenting have damaging outcomes for the family. These daily stresses appear to directly impact parents' psychological well-being, their attitudes and beliefs, and their behaviors towards their children (Crnic & Low, 2002). In short, it shows that understanding maternal stress and the influences upon it may be crucial in understanding parental behaviors of mothers.

Conventional wisdom accepts the idea that parental stress influences children's functioning. The influence of parenting stress on child development may be direct, but is more often regarded as indirect (Crnic & Low, 2002). Parenting stress might influence child adjustment indirectly through its effects on parents (Coplan, Bowker, & Cooper, 2003). Several researchers proposed that the impact of stress on children is moderated by the quality of parents' interaction with their

children (Belsky, 1984; Deater-Deckard, 1998; Webster-Stratton, 1990). Parenting stress may increase the likelihood that children will develop behavioral problems that can lead to negative parent-child interactions (Webster-Stratton, 1990). Negative parenting behavior is associated with emotional behavior problems, in particular, antisocial behavior and aggression. On the other hand, positive parenting is associated with the development of child competence in life areas such as cognitive functioning and behavioral regulation which promotes manageability and predictability of children (Shoonkoff & Phillips, 2000; Webster-Stratton, 1990).

General parenting stress is a major risk factor for later psychological adjustment, and subsequent social relationships and behavior in children (Phelps, Belsky, & Crnic, 1998; Orr, Cameron, & Day, 1991; Rose-Krasnor et al., 1996; Schmidt, Demulder, & Denham, 2002). In a longitudinal study by Abidin, Jenkins, and McGaughey (1992), researchers found that mothers' stress scores on the Parenting Stress Index (PSI) were significant predictors in relationship to disorders, social aggressions, attention problems, and anxiety withdrawals. In addition, a research study by Schmidt and other colleagues (2002) examined relationships among child-mother attachment at age three, family stress at ages 3, 4 and 5, and social-emotional outcomes in kindergarten. Findings of the research provided additional support that high levels of mothers' reported family stress over the preschool years were associated with high ratings of anger/aggression and anxiety/withdrawal and with low ratings of social competence in the kindergarten children. They also found consistency with previous research studies indicating predictive relations between attachment and behavior (Munson et al., 2001; Patterson & Albers, 2001). One conclusion that can be drawn from this is that

everyday parenting stress adversely affects children's behavior, development, and social well-being (Crnic & Low, 2002).

If children are introduced to experiences that make them feel good about themselves, then they can enjoy positive relationships, learn self-assuredly and overcome difficulties. In contrast, when they are overwhelmed with fear and discomfort, they have emotional and behavioral difficulties and problems. Socially competent children demonstrate the ability to play and learn, become aware of others, resolve problems, and develop satisfying relationships and develop psychologically, emotionally, intellectually, and spiritually (Papatheodorou, 2005). The ideal situation for a young child's social development is that of a nurturing environment that can best be provided by supportive relationships with a mother so that children who are reared in various environments become successful members of society.

CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY

The purpose of this study was to investigate the relationship between maternal stress and mother's perceptions of their preschool children's social behaviors, as well as to evaluate the differences in maternal stress and their preschool children's social behaviors between immigrant Korean mothers in the U.S. and Korean mothers in Korea. In addition, demographic characteristics were analyzed to examine the relationship based on the information about the mother and child for the two Korean groups. In the dramatic increase of rates of Korean women's employment after immigration to the U.S. (Hur, 1998; Nah, 2001; Pak, 2001), it is necessary to explore the stress that working mothers experience as a risk factor for parenting while adjusting to the U.S. culture. Furthermore, it is essential to investigate the effects of maternal stress on children's social behavior in both groups. This study can contribute to the overall awareness of mothers' stress, parental behavior due to the stress, and their children's social behavior and it can also help Korean mothers to promote better mother-child relationship. Finally, the study can help early childhood educators in both U.S. and Korea to better understand how the effects of maternal stress affect the social-emotional development of young children.

The instruments used were the (a) Demographic Survey to identify basic background information of the participants in the study (See Appendixes E and F); (b) Parenting Stress Index (PSI) (Abidin, 1995) to identify stressors experienced by mothers in the parent-child relationship; and (c) Preschool and Kindergarten Behavior Scales-2 (PKBS-2) (Merrell, 2002) to evaluate social skills and behavioral problem patterns of preschool and kindergarten-aged children. The Demographic Survey comprised in a Section I (mother's information) and Section II (child's

information) was designed by the researcher with a multichoice answering selection. The initial item pool of the PSI was developed by Abidin from the literature on preschool children's normal and atypical behavior. The items on the PKBS-2 are designed to intensely measure early social behaviors. The content included in this chapter was organized under the following headings: (a) Subjects, (b) Instrumentation, (c) Research Questions and Hypotheses, (d) Data Collection, and (e) Data Analysis.

Subjects

The participants in this study included 49 immigrant Korean mothers within the North-Central Texas area in the U.S. and 52 Korean mothers in Seoul, Korea, which totaled 101 participants. Initially, a packet of the surveys were distributed to a total of 145 participants, 69 immigrant Korean mothers in the U.S. and 76 Korean mothers in Korea, who all signed the consent form to participate in this study. The return rate of the surveys for both groups was 76.6%, which represented 111 of the total participants. However, some of the surveys did not have appropriate information for the criteria of the sampling mothers, or else they were not filled out completely. If incomplete packets were received, they were not used for this study. Therefore, 10 participants were withdrawn from the study, leaving a total of 101 subjects for data analysis.

Immigrant Korean mothers in the U.S. were recruited from the six Korean Saturday Schools located in Carrollton, Dallas, Lewisville, and Plano and the one private Korean child care center located in Dallas. These sites were selected because of the significant Korean population in these cities. North Texas has become an international center with a concentration of immigrant growth. As of the

year 2005, 40% of the 4 million North Texas residents were immigrants (foreign born and their children) (Weiss-Armush, 2005). Among the drastically increasing immigrant population in North Texas metropolitan areas, Koreans are contributing heavily to the fast-growing immigrants from East Asia. According to the U.S. Bureau of the Census (2000), Texas ranked sixth in the U.S. where Korean immigrants have settled (*N* = 45,571). Dallas and Fort Worth had the third and fourth highest increase of foreign-born residents in Texas. The Korean immigrant population in the Dallas-Fort Worth area accounted for 1.68% (*N* = 18,123) of the total in the U.S., which exceeds 1 million. Dallas-Fort Worth has the 10th highest population of Koreans among the selected Metropolitan areas in the U.S. (U.S. Bureau of the Census, 2000).

Korean Saturday Schools are non-profit organizations affiliated with most protestant Korean Churches in the United States. The primary goal of the Korean Saturday Schools is to promote a greater understanding of the Korean culture and language to the community at large. All Korean Saturday Schools employ standard educational programs similar to kindergarten curriculums through various activities. Some of the activities in such curriculums include Korean language lessons and multicultural lessons taught using music, art, and games. Most Korean Saturday Schools are generally managed based on the major structure such as: (a) a half-day Saturday program, which consists of a weekly 4-hour meeting each Saturday morning; (b) limited class size such as ten or fewer students to allow more interaction with the instructor and other students; (c) encouraging involvement for not only Korean-Americans but also non-Koreans to experience Korean culture, history, and language; (d) providing the program for all people who have interests and enthusiasm in Korea, language, and culture in the U.S., not limited only to Christians;

and (e) forming fellowships through multicultural activities such as celebrating Korean food, crafts, and traditional holidays. Also, it is not necessary to be a member of the protestant church to attend the Korean program. This program is designed to encourage Korean-American children to find their identities and gain self-confidence needed for becoming successful members of American society.

The Korean Saturday Schools used for this study included: (a) Dallas Korean Schools which have three different branches (Carrollton, Garland, and Dallas); (b) First Vision Academy in Carrollton; (c) Lewisville Christian Academy in Lewisville; and (d) Bit-Nae-Ri Korean School in Garland. The First International Academy, a private Korean child care center located in Dallas was also included in this study. For the 4- to 6-year-old groups, there were 53 children in Dallas Korean Schools (29 at Carrollton branch, 13 at Garland branch, 11 at Dallas branch), 7 children in First Vision Academy, 19 children in Lewisville Christian Academy, 39 children in Bit-Nae-Ri Korean School. The private Korean child care center in Dallas had 17 children in this age range. The following criterias were established for sampling immigrant mothers in the U.S. and to determine eligibility for participating in this study: (a) must have been born in the Republic of Korea; (b) must be an immigrant regardless of whether or not she is a U.S. citizen; (c) must have lived in the U.S. for less than 10 years; (d) must be able to complete either the English version of the instrument or the Korean version; (e) must be married; (f) must have a child between the ages of four and six years old attending one of the schools in this study; and (g) must be employed either part-time or full-time; and (h) must be willing to sign the consent form to participate in this study.

Likewise, the sample of Korean mothers in Korea was selected from the four private kindergartens named Jin-Il, Hyun-Dai, Chang-Deok, and Jae-Il in Seoul,

Korea. Most of the kindergartens in Korea in this study have four to five classes, which have 20 to 30 children in a class. These kindergartens are privately owned or government-operated centers, which are located in middle class areas with a similar SES standard. The criteria for the mothers in Korea to participate in this study included: (a) must have been born in the Republic of Korea; (b) must be living in Korea; (c) must be able to speak, read, and write Korean; (d) must be married; (e) must have a child between the ages of four and six years old attending one of the schools in this study; (f) must be employed either part-time or full-time; and (g) must be willing to sign the consent form to participate in this study.

The relationships between maternal stress and the outcomes measured regarding social behaviors were examined. Data pertaining to the child's age, gender, birth order, and number of hours enrolled in school and the mother's information such as mother's age, number of years married, number of children, family size, education level, number of hours employed, and income level were provided by the mother. The mothers who participated in this study provided ratings of their children's social behaviors, which included Social Skills such as Social Cooperation, Social Interaction, and Social Independence, and Problem Behaviors such as Internalizing Problems (e.g., aggressive, disruptive, and overactive behaviors) and Internalizing Problems (e.g., anxiety, depression, and withdrawal). They also provided data concerning their level of maternal stress which originated from the parent-child relationship.

Instrumentation

Instruments used for collection of data in this study were primarily selected based on their use in previous research projects that have focused on mother's

stress and child's social behavior. Prior to using the all instruments for the study, the Korean translated survey packet was checked through by the 11 directors, seven in the U.S. and four in Korea, who were involved with this study to determine whether or not those instruments were properly prepared linguistically and culturally for both groups in order to minimize misconceptions. The directors of the Korean Saturday Schools for the study were highly educated professionals who obtained master's or doctoral degrees in the U.S. or Korea in the various fields of education such as English, music, and art. These directors are not only lecturers at such institutes of education as Brookhaven College, Texas Women University, and the University of North Texas, but they are also highly respected leaders of the Korean-American communities of this area. The directors of the child care centers in both U.S. and Korea were professionals with expertise in early childhood education, whose philosophical goal is to inspire educators of children to maximize their efforts for providing the best possible programs for their students. To determine whether the research had a potential for failure due to any misunderstandings caused by awkward translations, the surveys were pilot-tested with several immigrant Korean mothers to increase the likelihood of success, as recommended by many researchers (Baker, 1994; De Vaus, 1993; Pilot, Beck, & Hungler, 2001). The measures included: (a) Demographic Survey; (b) Parenting Stress Index (PSI); and (c) Preschool and Kindergarten Behavior Scales-2 (PKBS-2).

Demographic Information

The Demographic Survey was designed by the researcher to identify basic background information of participants in a checklist form: mother's age, number of years married, number of children, family size, level of education, number of hours employed, and income level; child's age, gender, birth order, and number of hours

enrolled in school. The information measure was prepared for both immigrant Korean mothers in the U.S. and Korean mothers in Korea separately since immigrants have their specific information related to immigration.

Demographic Survey for immigrant Korean mothers (See Appendix E). The participants were instructed to give such information as their age, marital status, number of years married, number of children, family size, mother's education, number of hours employed, and income level. They were also asked to answer questions about their children, such as age, gender, birth order, and number of hours enrolled in school. Furthermore, immigrant Korean mothers participating in this study provided the information such as years in the U.S., language spoken at home, and English proficiency.

Demographic Survey for Korean mothers residing in Korea (See Appendix F). The background data collected on Korean mothers residing in Korea was the same as that of the Korean immigrants, with the obvious exception of immigration information such as length of time in the U.S., language spoken at home, and English proficiency.

Parenting Stress Index (PSI)

The Parenting Stress Index (PSI) was developed by Abidin (1995) to measure stress in the parenting system from the perspective of a parent, typically the mother. PSI is a paper-and-pencil scale completed by the parent respondent. It consists of 120 items which include: items to be rated on a 5-point Likert-type scale ranging from strongly agree to strongly disagree with 1 as *strongly disagree*, 2 as *disagree*, 3 as *not sure*, 4 as *agree*, and 5 as *strongly agree*, a few items in a multiple-choice format, and a stressful life events list requiring a "yes" or "no" response. A Korean translation is already in publication by an educator who received

her doctoral degree of Counseling in the Department of Counseling, Higher Education, and Early Childhood Education at the University of North Texas and was used by many parents in other data collection process. The Korean translated version of PSI was used without any cultural bias or difficulties to follow the direction for Korean parents in her study. The permission was granted to the researcher to reproduce up to a total of 150 copies of the Korean version of the Parenting Stress Index (PSI) for use in the study (See Appendix C). The entire survey can be completed in approximately 20 minutes.

Three source domains of stress measured with the instrument are: (a) child characteristics, (b) parent characteristics, and (c) situational-demographic life stress. Each of these domains is subdivided into subscales. The Child Domain consists of 47 items and assumes that child characteristics have a significant impact on how parents are able to fulfill their parental roles. The subscales of Child Domain include: (a) Adaptability, (b) Acceptability, (c) Demandingness, (d) Mood, (e) Distractibility-Hyperactivity, and (f) Reinforces Parent. The Parent Domain consists of 54 items and includes seven subscales, which are (a) Depression, (b) Attachment, (c) Role Restriction, (d) Competence in Parenting Role, (e) Isolation, (f) Spouse, and (g) Health. The remaining 19-item Life Stress scale measures how much stress a parent may be experiencing outside the parent-child relationship.

The Total Stress score is attained by adding the Child Domain and Parent Domain scores together. The normal range for the stress raw scores on the PSI was between 180 and 252 on Total Stress, 78 and 114 on Child Domain, and 99 and 142 on Parent Domain, indicating the percentile rank between the 15^{th} and the 80^{th} of representative participants. Therefore, a Total Stress score of 253 or higher, a Child Domain score of 115 or higher, and a Parent Domain score of 143 or higher are

considered to be cause for concern with regard to parent-child relationships (Abidin, 1995).

The reliability coefficients of the PSI reported by author of the instrument were tested on a sample of 30 mothers from the norm group by test-retest method (Abidin, 1995). Pearson correlations of the test-retest scores were .63 for the Child Domain, .91 for the Parent Domain, and .96 for the Total PSI score. The reliability coefficients were also computed on the norm active sample of 534 parents (Loyd & Abidin, 1985). The alpha reliability coefficients for the Child Domain subscales and Parent Domain subscales were .89 and .93. The reliability coefficient for the total Stress score was .95. In addition, the internal consistency coefficients using Cronbach's alpha were calculated for each subscale, each domain, and the Total Stress score on responses of a sample of 2,633 subjects (Haunestein, Scarr, & Abidin, 1986). The reliability coefficients for the two domains and Total Stress score are: Child Domain, .90; Parent Domain, .93; and Total Stress score, .95. Those correlation scores indicate that internal consistency reliabilities for the domain scores and the Total Stress score appear to be high and stable across the sample on the PSI (Barnes & Oehler-Stinnett, 1995).

The validity of the PSI was established on the normative sample of 534 parents (Loyd & Abidin, 1985). The subscales of Child Domain and Parent Domain accounted for 41% and 44% of the variance, and 58% of the variance was explained for the Total PSI subscales. The results suggest that each subscale is a strong measure for a particular source of stress. The strong validity of the PSI can be found in correlational studies of parental stress with other measures including the Achenbach Child Behavior Checklist (Achenbach, 1983), Beck Depression Inventory (Beck, Ward, Mendelson, Mock, & Erbaugh, 1961), Child Abuse Potential Inventory

(Milner, 1986), and Infant Temperament Questionnaire (Rothbart, 1981) (as cited in Barnes & Oehler-Stinnett, 1995). Through several research studies, PSI scores have been found to be related to children's development, behavior problems, childhood disabilities and illness, at-risk families, parent characteristics, family transition issues and marital relationships.

Preschool and Kindergarten Behavior Scales-2 (PKBS-2)

The Preschool and Kindergarten Behavior Scales-2 (PKBS-2*)* were developed by Merrell (2002). This instrument was designed to measure behavioral development of children from three to six years. It consists of 76 items rated on a 3-point (0-3) Likert-type scale with 0 as *never*, 1 as *rarely*, 2 as *sometimes*, and 3 as *often*, and is separated into two dimensions, Social Skills and Problem Behavior. The Social Skills dimension was designed to access social behavior directed toward peers and adults. This dimension is divided into three subscales: (a) Social Cooperation reflecting adult-related social adjustment, (b) Social Interaction reflecting the peer-related social behaviors of making friends, and (c) Social Independence reflecting peer-related social behaviors that allow one to achieve independence within one's peer group. The Problem Behavior scale yields two broad scales of the Externalizing and Internalizing Problems. Externalizing Problems include Self-Centered-Explosive, attention Problems-Overactive, and antisocial-Aggressive. Internalizing Problems include Social Withdrawal and Anxiety-Somatic Problems.

The Total Stress score is attained by adding the Child Domain and Parent Domain scores together. The normal range for the stress raw scores on the PSI was between 180 and 252 on Total Stress, 78 and 114 on Child Domain, and 99 and 142 on Parent Domain, indicating the percentile rank between the 15^{th} and the 80^{th} of

representative participants. Therefore, a Total Stress score of 253 or higher, a Child Domain score of 115 or higher, and a Parent Domain score of 143 or higher are considered to be cause for concern with regard to parent-child relationships (Abidin, 1995).

All PKBS-2 scores are converted to standard scores, which are based on a distribution with a mean of 100 and a standard deviation of 15. All scores are expressed as the percentage of cases in the PKBS-2 norming samples. Percentiles are viewed as ranks in a group of 100 representative participants or cases, with 1 being the lowest rank and 100 being the highest (Merrell, 2002). Therefore, the lowest 5% of Social Skills scores for that distribution are considered to be High Risk, indicating the standard raw scores below 72 on Standardized Composite Social Skills, below 75 on Social Cooperation, below 74 on Social Interaction, and below 75 on Social Independence. The moderate risk ranged from the 5^{th} to the 15^{th} percentile, representing the range of standard scores from 73 to 87 on Standardized Composite Social Skills, 75 to 85 on Social Cooperation, 74 to 84 on Social Interaction, and 75 to 85 on Social Independence.

Unlike the Social Skills scale, the scores in the highest 5% (i.e., equal to or higher than 95% of the participants or cases) and ranging from the 85^{th} to the 95^{th} percentile for the Problem Behavior Scale reflect greater levels of behavioral problems of children in two risk levels, High Risk and Moderate Risk. The High Risk level includes the standard scores above 125 on Standardized Composite Problem Behavior, above 125 on Externalizing Problems, and above 124 on Internalizing Problems. The Moderate Risk level is considered to be the standard scores from 112 to 125 on Standardized Composite Problem Behavior, 116 to 125 on Externalizing Problems, and 115 to 124 on Internalizing Problems.

The PKBS-2 is a survey requiring approximately 8 to 12 minutes to be completed by someone who has been familiar with the child for at least 3 months preceding the rating period, most commonly parents and teachers. The verbal statements within each item for the Social Skills dimension are ordered by functional levels; functioning, average, moderate deficit, and significant deficit. For the Problem Behavior dimension, no problem, average, moderate problem, and significant problem behavior are ordered within each item. The respondent will determine the appropriate level and circle the number which represents the rating for that item.

The reliability of the PKBS-2 reported by the author of the instrument appears to be quite high. Merrell (2002) found .90 alpha reliabilities of the PKBS-2 to permit use for individual decision-making. Test-retest reliability coefficients for 3- to 6-year-olds at 3- week and 3- month intervals was estimated as high for the Problem Behavior scale, .86 and .78, respectively. Also, the reliability coefficient for three Social Skills subscales ranged from .58 to .69 over three months. It suggests that the ratings on the PKBS-2 were relatively stable over time, which is encouraging for prospective researchers. The internal consistency coefficients using Cronbach's alpha were determined on responses of a sample of 1,846 subjects (Merrell, 2002). The reliability coefficients for the two dimensions are: Social Skills Scale, .93 (Social Cooperation, .89; Social Interaction, .84; Social Independence, .81) and Problem Behavior Scale, .96 (Externalizing, .95 and Internalizing, .87). These coefficient scores all indicate that the PKBS-2 has very strong internal stability.

Content validity of the PKBS-2 claimed by Merrell (2002) appeared to be adequate as the items bear a relationship to the conceptual dimensions of the test and correlated at a minimum level with the appropriated subscales and scale totals. Construct validity was demonstrated by the moderated to high item-scale and item-

total correlations, the moderate correlations between scale scores, and the relatively robust factor structure across gender, age, and disability categories. Convergent validity was demonstrated in part by comparing the PKBS-2 to the Social Rating Skills System because the items on the PKBS-2 include many that duplicate the Social Skills Rating Systems (Gresham & Elliot, 1990). The correctional scores on the PKBS-2 with scores on the Social Skills Rating Systems were highly correlated as .76 and .83 for each Social Skills Total scores and the two Problem Behavior scores.

The PKBS-2 was selected for use in this study because; (a) the PKBS-2 ultimately may prove most useful in early screening and diagnosis; (b) the subscales are closely related to social behaviors of children; and (c) it was designed specifically for use with young children. There was not a Korean version of the PKBS-2. Therefore, it was necessary to translate the PKBS-2 into the Korean language for the sample of the study so that they can have an option to choose either an English or Korean version of the survey. The non-exclusive permission was granted to translate the PKBS-2 into Korean for the current research solely (See Appendix D). The translated version was only for the researcher's exclusive use and not for commercial use or release.

For the Korean version of the PKBS-2, it was translated into Korean by the researcher who received a bachelor's degree in Early Childhood Education in Korea as well as a master's degree in the same field from the University of North Texas, and was a kindergarten teacher in Korea, and worked at at the Child Development Laboratory at the University of North Texas for several years. After the initial translation, the PKBS-2 was translated into English and back into Korean by two Korean professionals who are both native Korean speakers. One who majored in

Reading Education in the Department of Teacher Education and Administration at the University of North Texas is currently working as an assistant professor of Reading in the Department of Curriculum and Instruction at the Northeastern State University of Oklahoma. The other majored in English and worked as a lecturer in the Department of English at the University of North Texas. In the event that the items on the survey were not translated identically, a meeting was held with those Korean professionals who are representatives of the target population who made a decision on the survey. Before the study began, all directors involved in this study re-checked the surveys to be sure that they were culturally appropriate, and the pilot-study was executed with several immigrant Korean mothers of young children by the researcher, as a part of the pre-testing.

Research Questions and Hypotheses

The major research questions and hypotheses in the study were the following:

Research Question 1. What demographic variables, if any, are related to maternal stress in immigrant Korean mothers in the U.S. and Korean mothers in Korea?

Hypothesis 1. There are no demographic variables which are related to PSI scores in immigrant Korean mothers in the U.S.

Hypothesis 2. There are no demographic variables which are related to PSI scores in Korean mothers in Korea.

Research Question 2. What are the differences, if any, in maternal stress between immigrant Korean mothers in the U.S. and Korean mothers in Korea?

Hypothesis 3. There are no differences in PSI scores between immigrant Korean mothers in the U.S. and Korean mothers in Korea.

Research Question 3. What are the differences, if any, in mothers' perceptions of their preschool children's social behaviors between immigrant Korean mothers in the U.S. and Korean mothers in Korea?

Hypothesis 4. There are no differences in PKBS-2 Social Skills scores between immigrant Korean mothers in the U.S. and Korean mothers in Korea?

Hypothesis 5. There are no differences in PKBS-2 Problem Behaviors scores between immigrant Korean mothers in the U.S. and Korean mothers in Korea?

Research Question 4. To what extent does maternal stress relate to mothers' perceptions of their preschool children's social behaviors in immigrant Korean mothers in the U.S.?

Hypothesis 6. There are no correlations between PSI Total stress scores and PKBS-2 Social Skills scores in immigrant Korean mothers in the U.S.

Hypothesis 7. There are no correlations between PSI Total stress scores and PKBS-2 Problem Behaviors scores in immigrant Korean mothers in the U.S.

Research Question 5. To what extent does maternal stress relate to mothers' perceptions of their preschool children's social behaviors in Korean mothers in Korea?

Hypothesis 8. There are no correlations between PSI Total Stress scores and PKBS-2 Social Skills scores in Korean mothers in Korea.

Hypothesis 9. There are no correlations between PSI Total Stress scores and PKBS-2 Problem Behaviors scores in Korean mothers in Korea.

Research Question 6. What are the differences, if any, in the relationship between maternal stress and mothers' perceptions of their preschool children's social

behaviors in immigrant Korean mothers in the U.S. and Korean mothers in Korea?

Hypothesis 10. There are no differences in correlations between PSI Total Stress scores and PKBS Social Skills scores in immigrant Korean mothers in the U.S. and Korean mothers in Korea.

Hypothesis 11. There are no differences in correlations between PSI Total Stress scores and PKBS Problem Behaviors scores in immigrant Korean mothers in the U.S. and Korean mothers in Korea.

Data Collection

The researcher contacted all seven directors of the six Korean Saturday Schools in Carrollton, Dallas, Lewisville, and Plano and the one private Korean child care center in Dallas through personal visits to request permission to include the facility in the study (See Appendix A). After obtaining the official permission letters from the seven Korean directors, they were asked to read and check the packet of the surveys which were going to be used for the study. This insured that the instructions that the participants followed would be clear and devoid of cultural bias. The directors were informed by the researcher of the procedure in which they were involved, including offering encouragement for voluntary participants, distributing research information and mothers' informed consent sheets which should be signed, and collecting returned consent sheets and the packets of the surveys within one week. Then, the translated surveys were also pilot-tested with several immigrant Korean mothers who were not affiliated with the seven schools.

For the sample in Korea, the researcher sent an initial letter of request to the directors with a permission letter to be signed individually via fax until the original arrived in the mail for permission from the directors of the four private kindergartens

in Seoul, Korea. They were also asked to read and check the surveys for any cultural bias or misunderstanding due to language usage.

As a first step to collect data on immigrant Korean mothers in the U.S., the directors in the Korean Saturday Schools and the private child care in the North Texas area within aforementioned communities were asked to distribute a letter explaining the study to mothers of the 4- to 6-year-old children, who fit the sampling criteria such as living in the U.S. less than 10 years, being married, and being employed as mentioned in the previous section “Subjects,” participating in their programs. The directors distributed the letter based on their lists of mothers’ information which met the criteria. The letter and Parent Consent Forms contained information about the purpose of the study, study procedures, foreseeable risks and benefits to the mothers, confidentiality, and use of research data in the field of Early Childhood Education for scientific or educational purpose (See Appendix B). The date of the informal meeting was displayed on the announcement board at the schools. Once eligible mothers were obtained, a meeting was held by the researcher to discuss the research issues relating to the study’s purpose, surveys the mothers will be asked to complete, what will occur during the research study, the information to be disclosed to the researcher, coding and protecting of the data, the intended use of the research data that was to be collected, as well as their approval to participation in this research and answer any questions they may have. If mothers decided to participate in this study, they were asked to return the attached consent form.

Upon receiving permission, a packet of the surveys were distributed to the participants. The surveys that the participants completed are: (a) Demographic Survey; (b) Parenting Stress Index (Abidin, 1995); and (c) Preschool and

Kindergarten Behavior Scales-2 (Merrell, 2002). The participants completed the surveys for one of their children who met the age requirements for the study. If participants had more than one child aged 4- to 6-years, they were asked to focus on only one child for this particular study. It took approximately 30 minutes to fill out these instruments. After completing the surveys, they were given a one week deadline to return it to the directors to maximizing the return rate. The data collecting process was performed during the months of July and August of the year 2006.

After obtaining the permission letters from the directors of the four kindergartens in Korea, the data collecting from families residing in Korea was performed between August and September of 2006. The researcher traveled to Korea for the purpose of contacting the directors individually and collecting the data in person. The researcher then explained the procedure that the participants needed to follow, just as with the immigrant sample in America. The directors in Korea were asked to include information about the study in their weekly home letter. The directors were then asked to distribute a letter explaining the research to mothers of the 4 to 6 year old children in their programs who met the criteria for being eligible for the study such as living in Korea, being married, and being employed, based on their list of mother's information. The informal meeting conducted by the researcher was held at the four private kindergartens to discuss the same issues as mentioned above. The mothers who met the study criteria and wanted to participate in the study were asked to return the consent form to the teachers in the program. Then, the surveys were given to these mothers who returned the consent form by the teachers or directors in the program directly when the mothers came to school to pick up their children or sent through the children with a weekly letter.

The participants in both U.S. and Korea in this study were informed of the

potential benefits to them and their children. The scores on maternal stress and child's social behavior would be interpreted by the researcher individually if so desired, which would be useful for them in recognizing the level of stress that they experienced. When this study is completed, the participants shall be presented the results of the analysis to provide a better understanding of the relationship between maternal stress and their children's social behaviors.

The participants were first instructed to give demographic background information such as their age, education, and annual income. Then, the mothers were instructed to complete the two surveys addressing maternal stress (PSI) and their children's social behaviors (PKBS-2). After completing the surveys, they were asked to return it within one week to the teachers or directors of the kindergartens in this study. When the surveys were returned, the directors implemented a numbering system for the packet of surveys, rather than naming to maintain the confidentiality of the participants. The researcher then completed a profile sheet for each survey. These profile sheets were used in the statistical analysis. The researcher will keep a master list with subject's names and respective codes in a private locked file cabinet in Denton, Texas for five years based on the federal law and regulations governing the use of human subjects in research projects, then all of the master sheets and profile sheets will be destroyed.

Data Analysis

For statistical analysis of the research data, the Statistical Package for the Social Science (SPSS) was used in this study. An alpha level of $p < .05$ was set to determine levels of significance for statistical tests.

Prior to further data analyses, the internal consistency coefficients using Cronbach's alpha were computed for each instrument, the Parenting Stress Index (PSI) and the Preschool Kindergarten Behavior Scales-2 (PKBS-2), for this Korean sample to check how well each individual item in a scale correlates with the sum of the remaining items. It is important to know whether a set of items measures the same responses if the same questions are recast (Santos, 1999). This test provided an indication of whether or not variables from the test instruments elicited stable and reliable responses for the Korean sample in the present study compared with those in other studies using the same instruments.

Descriptive statistics were used to examine the characteristics of the study sample. Frequencies, means, medians, modes, ranges, and standard deviations were obtained for study variables, depending on the levels of measurement. To test the research question one, multiple regression analysis was used to identify predictor variables that predict maternal stress as the dependent variable. The purpose of the multiple regression equations is to analyze the effects of groups of independent variables on the dependent variable. It provided information regarding the amount of variance in the dependent variable explained by the independent variables. The variables included for this regression analyses were child's age, gender, and family income for both immigrant and non-immigrant groups, and mother's length of time in the U.S. and English proficiency (reading, writing, and speaking) were included with three those variables for the immigrant Korean sample. Maternal stress as the dependent variable was measured separately for the two groups, immigrant Korean mothers in the U.S. and Korean mothers in Korea. Each regression provided information about the amount of variance in maternal stress explained by the predictor variables.

To test the research questions two and three, an independent *t*-test was used to analyze to determine whether mean scores of immigrant Korean mothers in the U.S. and Korean mothers in Korea differ significantly in terms of maternal stress, social skills, and behavioral problems of preschool children. For the research questions four, five, and six, correlation analysis was conducted to analyze the relationships between maternal stress and mother's perceptions of their preschool children's social behaviors. All scores were calculated correlations coefficients between maternal stress and mothers' perception of their children's social behaviors separately for immigrant Korean mothers in the U.S. and Korean mothers in Korea. For an exploratory research question in the study, two-way ANOVAs were performed to compare the amount of between-groups variance in individuals' scores with the amount of within-groups variance. It examined if there were any differences on maternal stress related to the child's gender between both the immigrant Korean sample in the U.S. and the Korean sample in Korea.

CHAPTER IV

RESULTS

The focus of the present study was to determine how maternal stress is linked to mothers' perceptions of their preschool children's social behaviors. Also, the researcher evaluated the differences in maternal stress and mothers' perceptions of their preschool children's social behaviors between immigrant Korean mothers in the U.S. and Korean mothers in Korea. Thorough interpretation of the results of this study recommend that a great need exists for further support of mothers and children in both the U.S. and Korea.

The results of the present study are organized in seven main sections in this chapter. The first section describes the demographic characteristics of the entire sample of mothers and children who participated in this study. The second section presents the internal consistency coefficients using Cronbach's alpha to check whether participants provided consistent answers on the Parenting Stress Index (PSI) and Preschool Kindergarten Behavior Sclaes-2 (PKBS-2). The third section shows the descriptive data on the PSI and PKBS-2 for the both groups. The fourth section explains the process of selecting the predictor variables relating to maternal stress for the multiple regression analysis. The fifth section answers research question one of predicting stress by presenting by using multiple regression analysis. Section six, answering research questions two and three, describes the findings to explore the differences in maternal stress and mothers' perceptions of their preschool children's social behaviors between the two groups, immigrant Korean mothers in the U.S. and Korean mothers in Korea. The seventh section, answering research questions four, five, and six, gives the findings related to the relationship of maternal stress and mothers' perceptions of their preschool children's social

behaviors in both groups. In the end of the analyses, an exploratory research question was suggested and examined by the researcher to find differences of maternal stress and their children's social behaviors perceived by mothers related to child's gender between both groups.

Demographic Profile of the Subjects

Demographic Characteristics of Mothers

The subjects in this descriptive study included 49 immigrant Korean mothers within the North-Central Texas area in the U.S. and 52 Korean mothers in Seoul, Korea. Table 1 shows the categorical demographic characteristics of the mothers in each group. The immigrant Korean mothers in the U.S. ranged in age from 30 to 44 years with 81.6% aged 30-39. The age range for the Korean mothers in Korea was from 25 to 50 years, with 76.9% of mothers aged 30-39 years. In terms of family size, the majority (93.3%) of Korean mothers in Korea reported having 3-4 persons in their families, compared to 69.34% of immigrant Korean families having 3-4 persons and 28.6% (f = 14) having 5-6 persons. Most of the immigrant Korean mothers (81.6%) in the U.S. and Korean mothers (96.2%) in Korea reported having 1-2 children.

Table 1
Categorical Demographic Characteristics of Mothers-Mother's Age, Family Size, and Number of Children

	Immigrant Korean Mothers in the U.S. (*n* = 49)		Korean Mothers in Korea (*n* = 52)	
	f	*%*	*f*	*%*
Mother's age *(years)*				
25-29	0	0.0	7	13.5
30-34	17	34.7	23	44.2
35-39	23	46.9	17	32.7
40-44	9	18.4	4	7.7
45-50	0	0.0	1	1.9
Family size				
3-4	34	69.4	48	93.3
5-6	14	28.6	4	7.7
7+	1	2.0	0	0.0
Number of children				
1	18	36.7	19	38.5
2	22	44.9	30	57.7
3	8	16.3	2	3.8
4	1	2.0	0	0.0

Table 2 shows that the education levels among both groups were fairly high: Just 24.5% of immigrant Korean mothers had a high school graduate level of education, while 55.1% had at least one college degree. Of the Korean mothers in Korea, 63.5% had completed college, and 26.9% had completed high school. The mothers in both groups also held degrees of higher formal education: 14.3% of the immigrant Korean mothers in the U.S. and 9.6% of the Korean mothers in Korea had completed an advanced degree.

Table 2
Categorical Demographic Characteristics of Mothers-Mother's Education and Total Family Income

	Immigrant Korean Mothers in the U.S. (*n* = 49)		Korean Mothers in Korea (*n* = 52)	
	f	%	*f*	%
Mother's education				
High school graduate	12	24.5	14	26.9
College graduate	27	55.1	33	63.5
Masters and above	7	14.3	5	9.6
Other	3	6.1	0	0.0
Total family income				
Under $15,000	1	2.0	0	0.0
$15,000~$24,999	4	8.2	3	5.8
$25,000~$34,999	3	6.1	4	7.7
$35,000~$49,999	12	24.5	19	36.5
$50,000~$74,999	11	22.4	14	26.9
$75,000~$99,999	16	32.7	8	15.4
$100000 or more	2	4.1	4	7.7

With regard to family income of immigrant Korean families, the greatest percentage of mothers had total family incomes between $75,000 and $99,999 (32.7%). A smaller proportion was represented by 22.4% of the sample on the income between $50,000 and $74,999, and 24.5% between $35,000 and $49,000. The median average of the immigrant Korean family income was $60,894.53. According to the cumulative percentage of family income, 40.8% of immigrant mothers reported their total income as below $50,000. Of the Korean families in Korea, the majority (36.5%) of total family income was between $35,000 and $49,999. Incomes between $50,000 and 74,999 were reported by 26.9% of the sample, and 15.4% between $75,000 and $99,999. Fifty percentage of the sample in Korea was comparable to earning income below $50,000.

Chi square tests were calculated to determine whether the patterns of responses were comparable for the two groups. In these categorical demographic variables of mothers, two variables such as mother's age: $\chi^2(4) = 11.64$, $p < .05$ and family size: $\chi^2(3) = 9.66$, $p < .05$ had differences between both groups. There was a higher occurrence of older mothers and larger families in the immigrant Korean group in the U.S. than there was with the group in Korea. However, there were no significant differences on patterns of response regarding the number of children: $\chi^2(3) = 5.852$, $p > .05$, mother's level of education: $\chi^2(3) = 0.261$, $p > .05$, and total family income: $\chi^2(6) = 6.476$, $p > .05$, indicating those variable were comparable across the two groups for the present study to explore the research.

Table 3 displays the demographic characteristics of the mothers in both groups based on continuous variables. The average of years married in immigrant Korean mothers in the U.S. and Korean mothers in Korea were 8.08 and 7.81 years. Where working is concerned, the mothers' average hours employed per week in both groups were nearly the same: 40.41 hours for the immigrant Korean mothers in the U.S. and 42.25 hours for the Korean mothers in Korea. Independent *t*-tests were used to compare the two sample groups. There were no significant differences in the means for years of marriage: $t(99) = -0.60$, $p > .05$ or hours employed per week: $t(96) = -0.60$, $p > .05$, indicating the two variables were comparable across the two groups.

Table 3
Demographic Characteristics of Mothers on Continuous Variables

	Immigrant Korean Mothers in the U.S. (*n* = 49)		Korean Mothers in Korea (*n* = 52)	
	Mean	*SD*	Mean	*SD*
Length of marriage (*years*)	8.08	2.41	7.81	2.21
Hours of employment	42.25	11.70	40.41	13.28

As shown in Table 4, a majority of the immigrant Korean mothers (87.7%), lived in the U.S. for more than 5 years, while only 12.3% of them lived in the U.S. for less than 5 years. Regarding language spoken at home, the greatest percentage of mothers (61.2%) reported that they speak only Korean at home, 36.7% of mothers speak both Korean and English, and 2% use only English. In terms of English proficiency, many of the mothers described their reading skills as quite strong (51.0%), while 36.7% reported proficiency as very little. On the other hand, 53.1% of mothers reported poor writing skills, and 36.7% reported as “quite a lot.” Half of the mothers (49.9%) also identified their speaking skills as limited, and 38.8% reported as “quite a lot.”

Table 4
Time in the U.S., Language, and English Proficiency of Immigrant Korean Mothers (*n* = 49)

	frequency	Percentage
Mother's time in the U.S. *(years)*		
1-2	2	4.1
3-4	3	8.2
5-6	10	20.4
7-8	11	22.4
9-10	22	44.9
Language spoken at home		
Korean	30	61.2
English	1	2.0
Both Korean and English	18	36.7
English proficiency		
Reading		
None	1	2.0
Very little	18	36.7
Quite a lot	25	51.0
Very fluent	5	10.2
Writing		
None	1	2.0
Very little	26	53.1
Quite a lot	18	36.7
Very fluent	4	8.2
Speaking		
None	1	2.0
Very little	24	49.0
Quite a lot	19	38.8
Very fluent	5	10.2

Demographic Characteristics of Children

Table 5 shows the categorical demographic characteristics of children in both groups. There were 29 boys (59.2%) and 20 girls (40.8%) of immigrant Korean mothers in the U.S. and 32 boys (61.5%) and 20 girls (38.5%) of Korean mothers in

Korea. In terms of the birth order, most children in both groups were represented as second born, and the next proportions were only born and first born. Only 10.2 % of immigrant Korean children in the U.S. and 3.8% of Korean children in Korea were represented as the third born.

Differences between groups regarding type of care for children while mothers were working, 51% of the immigrant Korean mothers answered that their children were not enrolled in a child care program. Child care was represented by 32.7% of mothers, and care by a grandmother was only 14.3%. The majority of immigrant Korean mother's children received care from a non-center based arrangement at a rate of 67.3%. Of the Korean children in Korea, the most common type of care for young children was child care (63.5%), and a smaller proportion was grandmother (23.1%).

Among those categorical demographic variables of children, a significant difference was found on types of care for children: $\chi^2(3) = 23.352$, $p < .05$. Many children of Korean immigrants received care from one of their parents. However, there were no differences on child's gender: $\chi^2(1) = .58$, $p > .05$ and birth order: $\chi^2(3) = 4.28$, $p > .05$ between both groups, indicating these variables were comparable for the two groups in this study.

Table 5
Categorical Demographic Characteristics of Children

	Immigrant Korean Mothers in the U.S. (*n* = 49)		Korean Mothers in Korea (*n* = 52)	
	f	%	*f*	%
Gender				
Male	29	59.2	32	61.5
Female	20	40.8	20	38.5
Birth order				
Only born	15	30.6	19	36.5
First born	11	22.4	6	11.5
Second born	18	36.7	25	48.1
Third born	5	10.2	2	3.8
Types of care for children				
Grandmother	7	14.3	12	23.1
Relatives	1	2.0	2	5.8
Child care	16	32.7	33	63.5
Other	25	51.0	4	7.7

The demographic characteristics of children in both groups based on continuous variables are shown in Table 6. There were no significant age differences between children of the immigrant Korean mothers in the U.S. and Korean mothers in Korea: $t(99) = -0.72$, $p > .05$. The average age was 61.42 months for the immigrant Korean children and 59.96 months for the Korean children in Korea, with standard deviations of 10.00 and 10.07. However, there was a difference on number of hours spent at child care per week if they were enrolled in any child care program between both groups: $t(.741) = 0.738$, $p < .05$. The length of staying at child care per week varied from 20 hours to 60 hours. The average hours were 36.14 hours and 39 hours for immigrant Korean children in the U.S. and Korean children in Korea.

Table 6
Demographic Characteristics of Children on Continuous Variables

	Immigrant Korean Mothers in the U.S. (*n* = 49)		Korean Mothers in Korea (*n* = 52)	
	Mean	*SD*	Mean	*SD*
Child's age *(months)*	61.41	10.00	59.96	10.07
Hours at child care per week	36.14	11.26	39.00	13.90

Internal Consistency Coefficients

The internal consistency coefficients using Cronbach's alpha were calculated on both Parenting Stress Index (PSI) and Preschool-Kindergarten Behavior Scales-2 (PKBS-2). It is recommended to check the Cronbach's alpha for tests prior to data analyses because there are many factors which affect the internal consistency reliability such as homogeneity of the examinee group, quality of test items, test lengths, or even time limit in test administration (Crocker & Algina, 1986). For the current study, alpha coefficients between .60 and .70 were applied as the minimum criterion internal consistency for being acceptable, although undesirable because it is regarded as being more appropriate for exploratory studies (Devillis, 1991).

Table 7 shows that the alpha coefficients ranged from .51 to .75 for the subscales of the Child Domain and from .53 to .83 for the subscales of the Parent Domain on the Parenting Stress Index (PSI), somewhat below those in the range of .70 to .83 for the subscales of the Child Domain and .70 to .84 for the subscales of the Parent Domain with a normative sample of 2,633 American mothers on the PSI (Abidin, 1995). The total alpha coefficients on the PSI were .86 on Child Domain and .89 on Parent Domain. One subscale (i.e., Distractibility/Hyperactivity) in Child Domain and two subscales (i.e., Attachment, Health) in Parent Domain showed the

alpha coefficients below .60 because a few items in those subscales could elicit a different point of view depending on the respondents in the sample of the study. For example, on an item of a subscale Distractibility/Hyperactivity, “When my child wants something, my child usually keeps trying to get it” (Abidin, 1995), there is a possibility that Korean mothers in the sample could perceive the meaning of it in either a positive or negative way. However, the alpha coefficients on both Child Domain and Parent Domain were considered acceptable to indicate an internal consistency for these measures, despite the fact that the coefficients for the most of the subscales were slightly lower than the reported ones in the test manual and a few were slightly below .60.

Table 7
Alpha Coefficients on Parenting Stress Index (PSI)

Subscales	Number of items	Sample size	Cronbach α
Child Domain	47	101	.86
Adaptability (AD)	11	101	.66
Acceptability (AC)	7	101	.75
Demandingness (DE)	9	101	.69
Mood (MO)	5	101	.63
Distractibility/Hyperactivity (DI)	9	101	.51
Reinforces Parent (RE)	6	101	.63
Parent Domain	54	101	.89
Depression (DP)	9	101	.80
Attachment (AT)	7	101	.53
Role Restriction (RO)	7	101	.83
Competence (CO)	13	101	.67
Isolation (IS)	6	101	.71
Spouse (SP)	7	101	.69
Health (HE)	5	101	.54

Table 8 shows that the alpha coefficients on the Preschool and Kindergarten Behavior Scales-2 (PKBS) were .88 on Social Skills Scale and .83 on Problem

Behavior Scale, which are acceptable for the study when compared to the PKBS-2 home rater normative sample of 1,846 American children, ages 3 through 6 years. The alpha coefficients for the three subscales of Social Skills were ranged from .61 to .83, somewhat below those in the range of .81 to 89 with a normative sample. The alpha on the Social Interaction was .61, but still acceptable based on the minimum criterion range from .60 to .70. The alpha coefficients of the subscales of Problem Behavior, Externalizing and Internalizing, were acceptable despite the relatively low alpha of Externalizing Problem, showing .66 compared to .95 with a normative sample. However, all those alpha coefficients for the Korean sample on the PKBS-2 were acceptable for the study.

Table 8
Alpha Coefficients on Preschool and Kindergarten Behavior Scales-2 (PKBS-2)

Subscales	Number of items	Sample size	Cronbach α
Social Skills Scale			
Social Cooperation	12	101	.83
Social Interaction	11	101	.61
Social Independence	11	101	.77
Social Skills Total	34	101	.88
Problem Behavior Scale			
Externalizing Problems	28	101	.66
Internalizing Problems	16	101	.78
Problem Behavior Total	42	101	.83

Maternal Stress and Children's Social Behaviors

Compared to the Normative Sample

Table 9 contains data on mothers' stress scores, the Parenting Stress Index (PSI). The PSI consists of a total score obtained by adding together all subscale scores. The two domains of the PSI which describe stresses generated from

characteristics of the child or from the parent are Child Domain and Parent Domain. The mean Child Domain scores for both immigrant Korean mothers in the U.S. and Korean mothers in Korea were 103.20 and 101.17, which fall just below the 65th and 60th percentile rank when compared to the normative sample. The mean Parent Domain scores for both U.S. and Korea sample were 139.30 and 138.60. Although these scores both lie between the 75th and 80th percentile ranks, indicating not in the critical range above the normal range, the scores show generally higher stress from the Parent Domain.

Table 9
Means and Standard Deviations of the Parenting Stress Index (PSI)

	Immigrant Korean Mothers in the U.S. (*n* = 49)		Korean Mothers in Korea (*n* = 52)	
	Mean	*SD*	Mean	*SD*
Child Domain	103.20	18.41	101.17	14.54
Adaptability (AD)	24.82	5.69	23.75	4.98
Acceptability (AC)	13.78	4.11	13.23	3.72
Demandingness (DE)	18.12	4.97	18.69	4.19
Mood (MO)	10.76	2.83	10.04	3.39
Distractibility/Hyperactivity (DI)	27.00	4.64	26.42	3.81
Reinforces Parent (RE)	8.73	2.85	9.04	2.59
Parent Domain	139.20	25.80	138.60	23.48
Depression (DP)	22.06	6.28	21.48	5.64
Attachment (AT)	15.58	3.51	16.04	3.72
Role Restriction (RO)	20.27	4.93	20.67	5.74
Competence (CO)	31.80	6.09	32.56	5.69
Isolation (IS)	14.92	3.62	14.50	3.77
Spouse (SP)	18.04	4.35	18.85	4.88
Health (HE)	17.18	14.47	14.50	3.22
Total Stress Score	242.41	39.63	239.77	33.16

The mean Total Stress scores for both groups participating in this investigation were 242.41 and 239.77. These scores for both groups are within the

70th and 75th percentile ranks, indicating that the respondents' scores on the present sample are in the highest 25-30% of maternal stress scores. Although the mean Total Stress scores for both groups do not fall in the critical range either above or below the normal range (i.e., the 15th -80th percentile) on the PSI normative sample, maternal stress scores should be cause for some concern for both groups.

Figure I shows the percentile ranks of the Child Domain subscale scores on the Parenting Stress Index (PSI) in both groups. All of the Child Domain subscale scores fall below the critical border line range of the 80th percentile. Several of the Child Domain subscale scores (Distractibility/Hyperactivity and Mood) were close to the border line of the 80th percentile. The highest scores for both groups were found on Distractibility/Hyperactivity (DI), which suggested the possibility that Korean mothers in both groups might have children who displayed many of the behaviors associated with Attention Deficit Disorder such as overactivity, restlessness, short attention span, failure to listen, failure to complete tasks, and difficulty concentrating on homework assignments as indicated in the instrument. However, all scores for both groups were in the border line range.

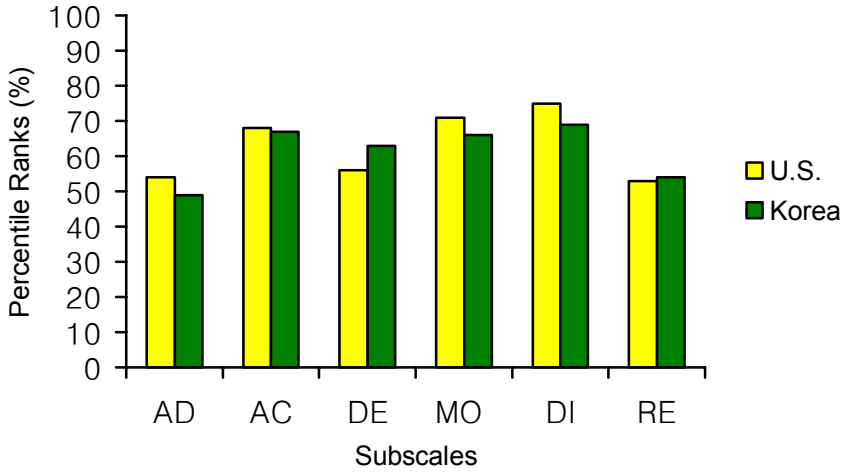

Figure 1. Percentile ranks of the Child Domain subscales on PSI.

Figure 2 shows the percentile ranks of the Parent Domain subscale scores on PSI in both Korean groups. Most of the Parent Domain subscale scores were below the critical border line range, except for Attachment and Health. The scores of the Attachment subscale for both groups lie between the 80th and 90th percentile ranks, implying an absence of emotional bonding to the child and positive parent-child interactions. Figure 2 shows that the score of Health subscale for the immigrant Korean sample was high (the 90th percentile rank), which indicates that Korean mothers in the U.S. have higher levels of stress that could affect their health in general, as well as their interactions with their children. For the group in Korea, the score on the Health scale was not in the critical range, but it was close to the critical range.

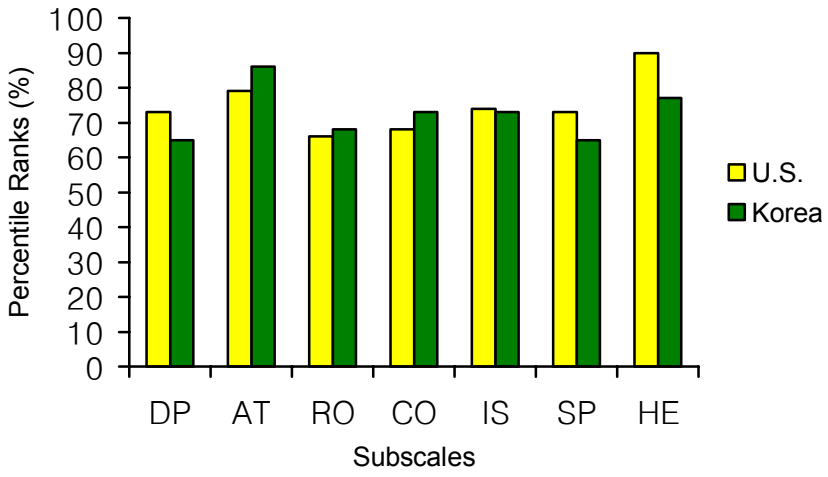

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Figure 2. Percentile ranks of the Parent Domain subscales on PSI.

Table 10 shows the data on children's social behavior scores from the Preschool and Kindergarten Behavior Scales-2 (PKBS-2). The Standardized Composite Social Skills score, attained by adding all three subscales scores and standardizing from the test manual for the immigrant Korean sample in the U.S. was 95.69 with a 31st percentile rank. This indicated that children's social skills are shown

to be generally low, yet not at the Moderate or High Risk level. Of the Korean sample in Korea, the mean Standardized Composite Social Skills score was 96.60. This mean score was in the 33rd percentile rank, indicating lower levels of social skills of children rated by Korean mothers in Korea, yet not at the risk level.

Table 10
Means and Standard Deviations of the Preschool-Kindergarten Behavior Scales-2 (PKBS-2)

	Immigrant Korean Mothers in the U.S. (*n* = 49)		Korean Mothers in Korea (*n* = 52)	
	Mean	*SD*	Mean	*SD*
Social Skills Scale				
Social Cooperation	94.43	13.89	98.50	11.96
Social Interaction	99.29	12.01	98.88	11.87
Social Independence	95.06	13.19	93.40	14.67
Standardized Composite Social-Skills	95.69	13.47	96.60	13.53
Problem Behavior Scale				
Externalizing Problems	102.39	11.54	97.42	9.41
Internalizing Problems	105.37	14.15	98.10	11.35
Standardized Composite Problem-Behavior	104.20	12.61	97.52	10.78

The Standardized Composite Problem Behavior score for the immigrant Korean sample in the U.S. (with a mean score of 104.20 and percentile rank of 60) did not fall in the High or Moderate Risk levels. The mean scores of Externalizing and Internalizing Problems were also not at designated risk levels. Of the Korean sample in Korea, the Standardized Composite Problem Behavior score was 97.52 with a 45th percentile rank, which indicates lower problematic behaviors observed by Korean mothers in Korea compared to the immigrant Korean sample in the U.S.

Figure 3 shows the standard mean scores of subscales on the PKBS-2 for both groups. The subscale scores on Social Cooperation, Social Interaction, and Social Independence for both groups were close to the mean of normative sample (*N* = 100), while the scores fell on the lower percentile ranks, indicating generally lower social skills of children perceived my mothers. With regard to the Externalizing and Internalizing subscales, the standard mean scores for both groups were above the normative mean of 100, indicating the scores lie between the 40th and 60th percentile ranks. The percentile ranks of each subscale were below at designated risk levels. However, more externalizing and internalizing behavioral problems were reported by the immigrant group in the U.S. than the group in Korea.

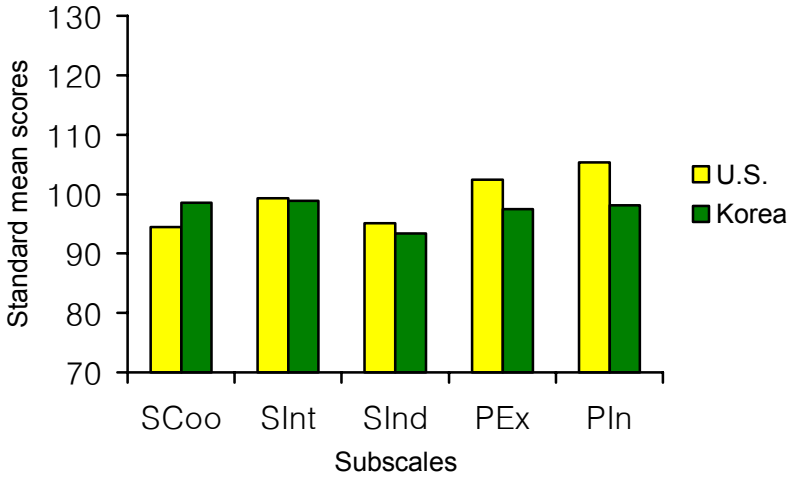

Figure3. Standard scores of the subscales on PKBS-2

Selection of Predictor Variables

The data collected from the sample indicated that some groups in each demographic variable have few occurrences. It is recommended that a 1:15 ratio for each continuous predictors or dummying coded categorical groups be applied because the occurrence of either an unequal-sized group or an extremely small

number cell-size does not represent the entire population (Hair, Black, Babin, Anderson, & Thantam, 2006). Therefore, categorical predictor variables were re-grouped and re-coded. Regrouping was basically processed by data-driven based on artificial critical cut-off points. In this study, mother's age, level of education, types of care, family income, and child's gender are categorical variables regrouped for both Korean samples. Mother's time in the U.S., language spoken at home, and English proficiency (i.e., reading, speaking, and writing) are additional re-grouped variables for the immigrant sample. Two variables, family size and child's birth order, were excluded to analyze in this study because most mothers in both samples had a small number of children, making no significant differences on those variables in both groups.

Table 11 shows the data such as means, standard deviations, and frequencies after regrouping the categorical variables based on the scores of Parenting Stress Index (PSI). The cases in each category were considered acceptable to meet the ratio 1:15 in order to represent an independent group by itself, although a few categories showed slightly lower frequencies. The values in Table 10 also serve the criterion coding purpose (Schumacker & William, 1993). "The dependent variable mean of each group in the nominal predictor (e.g., ethnicity) was used to create a single predictor vector…" (Henson & Hwang, 2002, p. 717). Instead of using multiple dummy codes, the criterion coding in the categorical predictor allows "…the use of single vector to represent all categories of the nominal independent variable" (p. 717)." Therefore, the group means of the Total Stress score of the categorical predictors were used as the predictors of dependent variable variation for the regression analysis.

Table 11
Means and Standard Deviations of the Parenting Stress Index (PSI) After Re-grouping

	Total Stress of Korean Immigrant Sample (*n* = 49)			Total Stress of Korean Sample (*n* = 52)		
Variable	*M*	*SD*	*f*	*M*	*SD*	*f*
Mother's age (*years*)						
1 = 34 and below	242.76	46.83	17	243.97	36.80	30
2 = 35 and above	242.22	36.06	32	234.05	27.23	22
Mother's education						
1 = High school and others	244.80	44.37	15	242.14	40.21	14
2 = College and above	241.35	38.02	34	238.89	30.74	38
Types of care						
1 = Non-child care	241.06	38.48	33	240.89	29.10	19
2 = Child care	245.19	43.07	16	239.12	35.71	33
Family Income						
1 = $49,999 and below	246.70	40.05	20	241.04	38.18	26
2 = $50,000 and above	239.45	39.78	29	238.50	27.98	26
Child's gender						
1 = Male	249.83	41.45	29	246.66	32.134	32
2 = Female	231.65	35.08	20	228.75	32.548	20
Years in the U.S. (*years*)						
1 = 6 and below	248.68	29.07	16			
2 = Between 6 and 8	250.09	53.22	11			
3 = 8 and above	235.32	39.24	22			
Language at home						
1 = Korean	244.70	35.28	30			
2 = Both Korean and English	238.47	46.44	19			
English reading proficiency						
1 = Very little	249.63	39.60	19			
2 = Quite a lot	237.83	39.64	30			
English speaking proficiency						
1 = Very little	243.92	29.73	24			
2 = Quite a lot	240.96	47.86	25			
English writing proficiency						
1 = Very little	244.30	35.55	27			
2 = Quite a lot	240.09	44.90	22			

As shown in Table 12, the predictor variables selected by the researcher, were child's age, child's gender, and family income for both groups, and additionally years in the U.S. and English proficiency for the immigrant sample. As mentioned in advance, children who receive more considerate and supportive care from birth and throughout early childhood and beyond are more likely to form a positive view of the world (Shonkoff & Phillips, 2000). In other words, the importance for a child to receive a high quality of attachment from their mother at an early age has value to the child for his or her entire life. In addition, within the male-dominant Korean tradition, mothers are expected to treat their sons differently so they can be socialized as the family leader (Kim, 2000; Lee-Sohng & Song, 2004; Park, 2006). Family income plays a role in the current study due to the increase of hours spent working outside of the home by mothers for the purpose of contributing to the family's financial security. As a result of her doubled burden of working full-time at home as well as having a job, she is exposed to an increased risk of maternal stress (Chang & Moon, 1998). All these factors could affect maternal stress in certain ways. Therefore, those three variables were input as the predictor variables in both samples.

Table 12
Correlation Coefficients of Predictor Variables for Immigrant Korean Mothers in the U.S.

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1. Hours employed	-						
2. English proficiency	.151						
3. Child's age	.071	-.105	-				
4. Mother's education	-.262	.143	-.398**	-			
5. Mother's time in the U.S.	.298*	.422**	.070	-.211	-		
6. Family income	.187	.111	.118	-.101	.355*	-	
7. PSI Total Stress score	-.115	-.058	.237	-.040	-.136	-.019	-

*$p < .05$. **$p < .01$.

As noted in the literature review, immigrant Korean mothers experience many hardships and must overcome the pressing obstacle of adaptation to a considerably different culture from their native culture (Hong & Hong, 1996; Kim, 1998). Hurh (1998) found that Korean immigrants who have been living in the U.S. for a short period of time (i.e., one to two years) displayed more stress due to the immediate problems encountered. But, as their time living in the U.S. increased, Korean immigrants showed better mental well-being. This indicates that length of residence in the U.S. is a significant factor in the acculturative process. Additionally, the language barrier is one of the most influential factors impacting the hardships of Korean immigrants. The difficulties of immigrant Korean mothers to communicate effectively in English discourage them from connecting with the social network in main stream of American. Their language deficiency also creates a lack of communication with their children who become more fluent in English in a much shorter time than they do (Hong & Hong, 1996; Jo, 1999; Park, 1997). As an immigration process, these factors lead to feelings of anxiety and stress from the mothers following "culture shock" in the U.S (Lynch, 2004; Yeh & Inose, 2002; Yost & Lucas, 2002). For that reason, the researcher selected mother's time in the U.S. and English proficiency as the predictor variables on maternal stress because those variables may effect the level of maternal stress.

In multiple regression, a low correlation among independent variables is desirable for maximizing R^2 (Hinkle, Wiersma, & Jurs, 2003). The bivariate correlational statistics were used to analyze the degree of relationship between the predictor variables. Table 11 shows the Pearson correlation coefficient (r) for each ratio variable (i.e., hours employed per week, English proficiency, and child's age) and Spearman's rho coefficient (ρ) for rank-ordered variables (i.e., mother's

education, mother's time in the U.S., and family income) for the immigrant Korean sample. The variable child's gender was excluded in this correlational statistics in both groups since the variable is dichotomous. The result showed that mother's length of time in the U.S. was positively related to hours employed per week (ρ = .298, p < .05), to English proficiency (ρ = .422, p < .01), and to family income (ρ = .355, p < .05) in significance levels, indicating mothers who reported more years of living in the U.S. generally worked longer, were fluent on English, and had higher family incomes. Mother's education was negatively correlated with child's age (ρ = -.398, p < .01). Despite the fact that positive and negative relationships between some predictor variables existed, there were generally insignificant or low correlations among themselves, implying the predictor variables for the immigrant sample are relatively independent.

Table 13 shows the correlation coefficients among English reading, speaking, and writing proficiencies for Immigrant Korean Mothers in the U.S. The predictor variable English proficiency of immigrant Korean mothers in the U.S. was examined based upon the three categories, reading, speaking, and writing skills. Pearson product moment correlation coefficients were calculated for all these three variables. The reading proficiency was positively correlated with speaking (r = .644, p < .001) and writing (r = .791, p < .001) proficiencies, as shown in Table 11. The speaking proficiency was also highly related to writing proficiency (r = .704, p < .001). The findings revealed that there were strong high positive correlations among all three English skills, indicating a high possibility of multicollinearity. Multicollinearity, the correlation among three or more independent variables, is often a problem in multiple regressions (Hair et al., 2006). One option to handle the multicollinearity is to use the composite score. Therefore, all these three variables were combined into

the overall English proficiency as an independent variable to predict maternal stress, instead of using each English skill in this regression analysis.

Table 13
Correlation Coefficients Among English Reading, Speaking, and Writing Proficiencies for Immigrant Korean Mothers in the U.S.

	1	2	3
1. Reading proficiency	-		
2. Speaking proficiency	.644***	-	
3. Writing proficiency	.791***	.704***	-

***$p < .001$.

Table 14 shows the correlation coefficients of the predictor variables for Korean mothers in Korea. In order to verify the correlations between predictor variables for the Korean sample in Korea, two variables, hours employed per week and child's age, were computed by the Pearson correlation, and mother's education and family income were computed by Spearman's rho. Mother's education was negatively related to their working hours outside the home ($\rho = -.361$, $p < .01$), but it was positively related to family income ($\rho = .347$, $p < .05$), indicating mothers with a high level of education in Korea worked less hours and reported a higher family income compared to mothers with a lower level of education. In summary, the predictor variables for the Korean sample were relatively independent in this study since the predictor variables displayed low correlations or no correlations with one another.

Table 14
Correlation Coefficients of Predictor Variables for Korean Mothers in Korea

	1	2	3	4	5
1. Hours employed	-				
2. Child's age	-.054	-			
3. Mother's education	-.361**	-.123	-		
4. Family income	-.092	.099	.347*	-	
5. PSI Total Stress score	.229	-.237	-.068	-.058	-

*p < .05. **p < .01.

Variables Relating to Maternal Stress

Multiple regression analyses were used to examine patterns of relationships between multiple independent variables and the dependent variable and determine how much variance in maternal stress could be explained by the predictor variables. The regressions were conducted on maternal stress for both immigrant Korean mothers in the U.S. and Korean mothers in Korea for the research question 1, including hypotheses 1 and 2.

Research Question 1. What demographic variables, if any, are related to maternal stress in immigrant Korean mothers in the U.S. and Korean mothers in Korea?

Hypothesis 1. There are no demographic variables which are related to PSI scores in immigrant Korean mothers in the U.S.

The predictor variables as explained in the previous section "Selection of Predictor Variables" were entered first into a model predicting overall maternal stress scores of immigrant Korean mothers in the U.S. on the Parenting Stress Index (PSI). The first model of regression was on PSI Total Stress score with three independent variables including child's age, child's gender, and family income. In terms of predicting the dependent variable Total Stress, the assumptions of regression analysis were met in this study. The four assumptions in multiple regression analysis

are: (a) linearity of the phenomenon measured; (b) constant variance of the error terms; (c) independence of the error terms; and (d) normality of the error term distribution (Hair et al., 2006). The shape of the data which could be better summarized with a straight line (Hair et al., 2006) pointed to the secure linearity in the relations between independent variables and Total Stress, and unequal variance was not presented in the analysis. The linearity was examined through residual plots (See Appendix G). As examined in the earlier section, each predicted value was independent, implying the predicted value was not related to any other prediction (Hair et al., 2006). In addition, the variables' frequency distributions were sufficiently normal in their distributions and the spread of data were satisfied, displaying homogeneity of variance (Hair et al., 2006) (See Appendix G).

Table 15 shows that these three independent variables totals did not predict maternal stress of immigrant Korean mothers in the U.S.: $F(1, 47) = 1.887$, $p > .05$. The result of the data analysis revealed that 5.3% of the variance was explained by those three independent variables (i.e., child's age, gender, and family income) on maternal stress for the immigrant Korean sample. Using Cohen (1988)'s reference, it is evident that those three predictors indicate a weak prediction on maternal stress. There were not any predictor variables which were significant on maternal stress in this first model of the regression analysis.

Table 15
Summary of Multiple Regression Analysis of Predictor Variables in Predicting Total PSI Scores of Immigrant Korean Mothers in the U.S.

Model	Variables	*B*	*SE B*	*β*	*t*	*p*
1	Child's age	0.94	398.18	0.24	-0.744	0.102
	Child's gender	0.90	0.56	0.21	1.671	0.154
	Family income	1.09	0.62	0.10	1.448	0.491
	$F(1, 47) = 1.887$; $p = 0.145$; $R = .33$; $R^2 = .11$; $R^2_{adj} = .053$					
2	Child's age	0.90	0.57	0.23	1.576	0.122
	Child's gender	1.00	0.64	0.23	1.568	0.124
	Family income	0.47	1.67	0.04	0.281	0.780
	Years in the U.S.	1.06	0.98	0.18	1.082	0.285
	English proficiency	0.52	10.10	0.01	0.051	0.959
	$F(1, 47) = 1.380$; $p = 0.251$; $R = .37$; $R^2 = .14$; $R^2_{adj} = .04$					

Note. Dependent Variable: PSI Total Stress score

The second multiple regression model was then used to compute the amount of variance explained by the three variables in the first model regression as well as the additional two variables such as mother's time in the U.S. and English proficiency, which are applicable only for the U.S. sample. The assumptions of the regression were met in the second model. The linearity and the normality of variables in the distributions were secure to be acceptable (See Appendix H). Table 14 also shows that the variance explained by the five independent variables on maternal stress did not meet a level of significance: $F(1, 47) = 1.380$, $p > .05$. The analysis showed that 4.0% of the variance in maternal stress of immigrant Korean mothers in the U.S. was attributed to child's age, gender, family income, mother's time in the U.S., and English proficiency, indicating a weak prediction by the five independent variables totals on maternal stress as same as the model 1. There were not any significant predictor variables for maternal stress for immigrant Korean mothers in the U.S. On the basis of this data, hypothesis 1 was accepted in the immigrant Korean sample.

Hypothesis 2. There are no demographic variables which are related to PSI scores in Korean mothers in Korea.

The regression analysis was also designed to determine how much variance in maternal stress is explained by the predictor variables of Korean mothers in Korea. The predictor variables included in this analysis were: child's age, child's gender, and family income, the same as the first regression model of the immigrant Korean sample. The relation between the three independent variables and PSI Total Stress score was normally spread in their distributions (See Appendix I). In addition, the spread of data pointed to either side of the regression line, indicating no one is in the outlier (See Appendix I).

Table 16 shows that the regression was significant for predicting maternal stress by the three predictor variables totals in Korean mothers in Korea: $F(1, 49) = 2.901$, $p < .05$. The percentage of variance attributed to those three predictor variables was 10%, which indicates a moderate prediction on maternal stress. Therefore, it could be said that those three predictors contributed uniquely to the variance in maternal stress of Korean mothers in Korea. In regard to each predictor variable, both child's age ($\beta = -.28$, $t = -2.082$, $p < .05$) and child's gender ($\beta = .32$, $t = 2.340$, $p < .05$) were significant predictors for maternal stress of Korean mothers in Korea. Therefore, hypothesis 2 was rejected in the Korean sample.

Table 16
Summary of Multiple Regression Analysis of Predictor Variables in Predicting Total PSI Scores of Korean Mothers in Korea.

Model	Variables	*B*	*SE B*	*β*	*t*	*p*
1	Child's age	-0.92	0.44	-0.28	-2.082	0.043*
	Child's gender	1.20	0.51	0.32	2.340	0.023*
	Family income	1.85	3.48	0.07	0.532	0.597
	$F(1, 49) = 2.901$; $p = 0.044$*; $R = .39$; $R^2 = .15$; $R^2_{adj} = .10$					

Note. Dependent Variable: PSI Total Stress score
*$p < .05$.

Differences in Maternal Stress and Mother's Perceptions of Their Preschool Children's Social Behaviors

This section presents the results of the Independent *t*-tests to determine the research questions 2 and 3, including hypotheses 3, 4, and 5, which show differences in maternal stress and mother's perceptions of their preschool children's social behaviors between immigrant Korean mothers in the U.S. and Korea mothers in Korea.

Research Question 2. What are the differences, if any, in maternal stress between immigrant Korean mothers in the U.S. and Korean mothers in Korea?

Hypothesis 3. There are no differences in PSI scores between immigrant Korean mothers in the U.S. and Korean mothers in Korea.

Table 17 displays the result of the independent *t*-tests to determine differences in maternal stress in both groups. Higher scores on the Parenting Stress Index (PSI) indicate more stress of mothers. The means of PSI Total Stress scores in both immigrant Korean mothers in the U.S. ($M = 242.41$) and Korean mothers in Korea ($M = 239.77$) were generally high, falling just below the 75th percentile ranks. Some scores were still in between the 15th and 80th on the PSI normative sample,

indicating that the scores were not cause for serious concern. There were no significant differences in maternal stress between the two groups on both PSI Total Stress scores (t = -0.364, p > .05) and the Subscales of Child Domain (t = -0.617, p > .05) and Parent Domain (t = -0.124, p > .05). The mean differences on Child Domain, Parent Domain, and Total Stress were 2.031, 0.608, and 2.639. The computed t-scores did not exceed the critical value. On the basis of this data, hypothesis 3 was accepted.

Table 17
Comparison of Maternal Stress Scores on Parenting Stress Index (PSI)

	Immigrant Korean Mothers in the U.S. (n = 49)		Korean Mothers in Korea (n = 52)			
	Mean	*SD*	Mean	*SD*	*t*	*p*
Child Domain	103.20	18.41	101.17	14.54	-.617	0.539
Parent Domain	139.20	25.80	138.60	23.48	-.124	0.902
Total Stress	242.41	39.63	239.77	33.16	-.364	0.717

Research Question 3. What are the differences if any in mothers' perceptions of their preschool children's social behaviors between immigrant Korean mothers in the U.S. and Korean mothers in Korea?

Hypothesis 4. There are no differences in PKBS-2 Social Skills scores between immigrant Korean mothers in the U.S. and Korean mothers in Korea?

The results of the data analyses, as reported in Table 18, revealed that there were no significant mean differences for Social Cooperation (t = 1.581, p > .05) , Social Interaction (t = -0.169, p > .05), Social Independence (t = -0.596, p > .05), and Standardized Composite Social Skills scores (t = 0.336, p > .05) between the two groups. Higher scores on the Social Skills Scale indicate greater level of social skills or social adjustment. In other words, higher Social Skills scores are desirable and

low scores are problematic (Merrell, 2002). The means of Standardized Composite Social Skills scores in both the immigrant Korean sample in the U.S. and the Korean sample in Korea were ranked at the 31st and 33rd percentile, which are neither a High (i.e., a percentile rank in the lowest 5th) nor Moderate (i.e., a percentile rank between 5th to 15th) Risk level compared to the normative sample on the PKBS-2. However, these scores indicated lower than average social skills of children. The *t*-test results showed that there were no significant differences on children's Social Skills scores perceived by mothers in both groups. Therefore, hypothesis 4 was accepted on the basis of this data.

Table 18
Comparison of Children's Social Behaviors Scores on PKBS-2 by Mothers

	Immigrant Korean Mothers in the U.S. (*n* = 49)		Korean Mothers in Korea (*n* = 52)			
	Mean	*SD*	Mean	*SD*	*t*	*p*
Social Skills Scale						
Social Cooperation	94.43	13.89	98.50	11.96	1.581	0.117
Social Interaction	99.29	12.01	98.88	11.87	-.169	0.866
Social Independence	95.06	13.19	93.40	14.67	-.596	0.553
Standardized Composite-Social Skills	95.69	13.47	96.60	13.53	.336	0.738
Problem Behavior Scale						
Externalizing Problems	102.39	11.54	97.42	9.41	-2.376	0.019*
Internalizing Problems	105.37	14.15	98.10	11.35	-2.857	0.005**
Standardized Composite-Problem Behaviors	104.20	12.61	97.52	10.78	-2.869	0.005**

*$p < .05$. **$p < .01$.

Hypothesis 5. There are no differences in PKBS-2 Problem Behaviors scores between immigrant Korean mothers in the U.S. and Korean mothers in Korea?

Table 18 also presents the differences on behavioral problem scores on the Preschool Kindergarten Behavior Scales-2 (PKBS-2) between both groups. In contrast to social skills scores, high scores on the Problem Behavior Scale may be cause for concern. Low scores on the PKBS-2 are desirable. The scores were not in the High or Moderate Risk levels according to the norms, but the Immigrant Korean mothers reported higher mean scores in the Problem Behavior subscales and composite score than Korean mothers in Korea. Significant differences were found between immigrant Korean mothers in the U.S and Korean mothers in Korea regarding perceptions of their children's behavioral problems with Externalizing (t = -2.376, p < .05), Internalizing (t = -2.857, p < .01), and Standardized Composite Problem Behaviors scores (t = -2.869, p < .01) from the PKBS-2. On the basis of this data, hypothesis 5 was rejected.

Relationship of Maternal Stress and Mothers' Perceptions of Their Preschool Children's Social Behaviors

This section addresses the study's research questions 4, 5 and 6, including hypotheses 6 to 11. Pearson product moment correlation coefficients were calculated to test the predicted relationships between maternal stress and mothers' perceptions of their preschool children's social behaviors in both immigrant Korean mothers in the U.S. and Korea mothers in Korea.

Research Question 4. To what extent does maternal stress relate to mothers' perceptions of their preschool children's social behaviors in immigrant Korean

mothers in the U.S.?

Hypothesis 6. There are no correlations between PSI Total Stress scores and PKBS-2 Social Skills scores in immigrant Korean mothers in the U.S.

Table 19 shows Pearson correlation coefficients computed to examine the relationship between maternal stress and mothers' perceptions of their preschool children's social skills in immigrant Korean mothers in the U.S. The results showed that there were significantly negative relationships between mothers' PSI Total Stress scores and their perceptions of their children's Social Cooperation scores (r = -0.323, p < .05). Therefore, mothers who were highly stressed were more likely to perceive their children as having lower social cooperation. A negative relationship was also noted between mothers' PSI Total Stress scores and their children's Social Interaction scores, but it did not reach significance at the alpha level of .05. There was a significant negative correlation between PSI Total Stress scores and Social Independence scores perceived by mothers (r = -0.314, p < .05). Mothers who were highly stressed perceived their children as having lower social independence. Overall, there was a significant negative relationship between PSI Total Stress scores and the Standardized Composite Social Skills score (r = -0.318, p < .05), indicating that immigrant Korean mothers in the U.S. who have more stress tend to perceive their children as having lower overall social skills. On the basis of this data, hypothesis 6 was rejected in the immigrant Korean sample in the U.S.

Table 19
Correlation Coefficients of PSI Total Stress Scores and Children's PKBS-2 Scores for Immigrant Korean Mothers in the U.S.

	Total Stress (n = 49)
	r
Social Skills Scale	
Social Cooperation	-0.323*
Social Interaction	-0.228
Social Independence	-0.314*
Standardized Composite Social Skills	-0.318*
Problem Behavior Scale	
Externalizing Problems	0.399**
Internalizing Problems	0.274
Standardized Composite Problem Behaviors	0.368**

*p < .05. **p < .01.

Hypothesis 7. There are no correlations between PSI Total Stress scores and PKBS-2 Problem Behaviors scores in immigrant Korean mothers in the U.S.

Results of the analyses, as shown in Table 19, reported that mothers' PSI Total Stress scores were significantly positively correlated with mothers' perceptions of their children's behavioral scores on Externalizing Problems (r = .399, p < .01) on the Preschool Kindergarten Behavior Scales-2 (PKBS-2). Therefore, the more stressed mothers were, the more likely they were to perceive their children as having externalizing behavioral problems. A positive but non-significant relationship was noted between PSI Total Stress scores and Internalizing Problems scores (r = 0.274, p = .57). Overall, the Standardized Problem Behaviors Composite score perceived by mothers was found to be significantly correlated with PSI Total Stress scores of mothers (r = 0.368, p = < .01). Therefore, mothers who were highly stressed were more likely to perceive their children as being problematic than less stressed mothers. The researcher rejected hypothesis 7 based on the data.

Research Question 5. To what extent does maternal stress relate to mothers' perceptions of their preschool children's social behaviors in Korean mothers in Korea?

Hypothesis 8. There are no correlations between PSI Total Stress scores and PKBS-2 Social Skills scores in Korean mothers in Korea.

Table 20 displays the results of analyses indicating the relationships between maternal stress and mothers' perceptions of their preschool children's social skills in Korean mothers in Korea by calculating Pearson product-moment correlation coefficients. A significant correlation was found between PSI Total Stress scores and children's Social Cooperation scores rated by mothers (r = -0.440, p < .01). Highly stressed mothers were more likely to perceive their children as having lower social cooperation. In addition, a negative correlation was noted between PSI Total Stress scores and children's Social Interaction scores (r = -0.319, p < .05). There was a negative t relationship between mother's Total Stress and their children's Social Independence, but it did not meet a significant alpha level of p < .05. There was a negative significant correlation between the Standardized Composite Social Skills scores and mothers' PSI Total Stress scores (r = -0.361, p < .01). The result revealed that mothers who were highly stressed were more likely to perceive their children's social skills as lower. Therefore, the researcher rejected hypothesis 8 in the Korean sample in Korea.

Table 20
Correlation Coefficients of PSI Total Stress Scores and Children's PKBS-2 Scores for Korean Mothers in Korea

	Total Stress (n = 52)
	r
Social Skills Scale	
Social Cooperation	-0.440**
Social Interaction	-0.319*
Social Independence	-0.253
Standardized Composite Social Skills	-0.361**
Problem Behavior Scale	
Externalizing Problems	0.458**
Internalizing Problems	0.449**
Standardized Composite Problem Behaviors	0.481***

*p < .05. **p < .01. ***p < .001.

Hypothesis 9. There are no correlations between PSI Total Stress scores and PKBS-2 Problem Behaviors scores in Korean mothers in Korea.

Results of the analyses showed that PSI Total Stress scores were significantly positively correlated with children's Externalizing Problems (r = .458, p < .01), Internalizing Problems (r = .449, p < .01), and Standardized Problem Behaviors Composite scores (r = .481, p < .001) on the PKBS-2 Problem Behavior scores rated by mothers (see Table 20). Positive relationships were noted between maternal stress and all three problem behaviors scores. The result indicated that the more stressed mothers were more likely to perceive their children as having both externalizing and internalizing problems. Therefore, hypothesis 9 was rejected in the Korean sample in Korea.

Research Question 6. What are the differences, if any, in the relationship between maternal stress and mothers' perceptions of their preschool children's social behaviors in immigrant Korea mothers in the U.S. and Korea mothers in Korea?

Hypothesis 10. There are no differences in correlations between PSI Total Stress scores and PKBS Social Skills scores in immigrant Korean mothers in the U.S. and Korean mothers in Korea.

Table 21 reproduces the correlations coefficients (*r*) in Pearson product-moment between PSI Total Stress scores and PKBS-2 Social Skills scores rated by mothers for the immigrant Korean mothers in the U.S. and Korean mothers in Korea as in Table 19 and 20, respectively. The *r*s for the two groups are all in the same directions in the range of .20s and .40s for the Social Skills Scale. The magnitude of the correlation for the Korean group seems to be larger than those for the U.S. group, except for that on children's Social Independence. To further test the *r*s differences between these two groups, Fisher *z*-transformation was used (Hinkle et al., 2003). The *r*s of each group were transformed to *z*-score. The number of sample was estimated as $n = 50$ because the sample sizes between both groups were similar ($n = 49$ vs. $n = 51$). Then, differences of the transformed *z*- scores between the two groups were analyzed. The observed values of the *z* scores on all three Social Skills subscales and Composite Skills were as follows: $z = 0.941$ on Social Cooperation; $z = 0.675$ on Social Interaction; $z = -0.455$ on Social Independence; and $z = 0.333$ on Standardized Composite Social Skills. The resulting *z* scores did not exceed the critical values, indicating that there were no significant differences on correlation coefficients between the two groups. Therefore, the hypothesis 10 was accepted on the basis of this data.

Table 21
Comparison of the Relationship Between PSI Total Stress Scores and Children's PKBS-2 Scores in Both Groups

	Total Stress		
	Immigrant Korean Mothers in the U.S. (*n* = 49)	Korean Mothers in Korea (*n* = 52)	
PKBS-2 Scores	*r*	*r*	*z*
Social Skills Scale			
Social Cooperation	-0.323*	-0.440**	0.941
Social Interaction	-0.228	-0.319*	0.675
Social Independence	-0.314*	-0.253	-0.455
Standardized Composite Social-Skills	-0.318*	-0.361**	0.333
Problem Behavior Scale			
Externalizing Problems	0.399**	0.458**	-0.496
Internalizing Problems	0.274	0.449**	-1.387
Standardized Composite Problem-Behaviors	0.368**	0.481**	-0.947

*$p < .05$. **$p < .01$. ***$p < .001$.

Hypothesis 11. There are no differences in correlations between PSI Total Stress scores and PKBS Problem Behaviors scores in immigrant Korean mothers in the U.S. and Korean mothers in Korea.

Table 21 shows the correlation coefficients between PSI Total Stress scores and PKBS-2 Problem Behaviors scores rated by mothers and transformed *z* scores for both groups. The *r*s for the two groups are all in the positive directions, in the range of .30s and .50s for the Problem Behavior Scale. The magnitude of the correlation for the Korean group seems to be larger than those for the U.S. group. The observed values of the *z* scores on the Standardized Composite Problem Behaviors score ($z = -0.947$) and the two subscales scores of the Externalizing ($z = -0.496$) and Internalizing ($z = -0.947$) Problems on maternal stress between the two

groups indicated no significance, since the *z* scores did not exceed critical values. On the basis of this finding, the hypothesis 11 was accepted.

CHAPTER V

FINDINGS, IMPLICATIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The purpose of the present study was to find if there was a correlation between maternal stress and mothers' perceptions of their preschool children's social behaviors, as well as to evaluate the differences in maternal stress and their preschool children's social behaviors between immigrant Korean mothers in the U.S. and Korean mothers in Korea. This study may help mothers get a clearer picture of their own level of stress and provide insights that may lead to inspire educators to support programs for stressed mothers and their children.

The researcher, first of all, focused on exploring social demographic characteristics in both immigrant Korean mothers in the U.S. and Korean mothers in Korea. The researcher then examined six research questions. The first question inquired about which demographic variables were related to maternal stress for both groups. The second and third questions asked about the group mean differences on maternal stress and mothers' perceptions of their preschool children's social behaviors. The remaining three research questions explored whether there was a relationship between maternal stress and mothers' perceptions of their preschool children's social behaviors in both groups. In addition, an exploratory research question was performed to examine differences of maternal stress and mothers' perceptions of their preschool children's social behaviors based on children's gender. In order to address these research questions, data from 101 Korean mothers was analyzed, 49 of which were living in the United States, and 52 of which were in Korea.

Within the first section of this chapter is a description of the findings of the study and of the investigation. The second section addresses implications or

suggestions to highly support stressed mothers and their children, as well as early childhood educators for better understanding of ethnic and cultural diversity and its implications on teaching and learning. The final section infers a need for future research.

Findings

Characteristics of the Participants

This study focused on two groups of Korean mothers, one who immigrated to the U.S. and the other who are living in Korea. First of all, characteristics of participants for the study were considered to identify background information. In terms of education level, the research showed that the majority of both immigrant Korean mothers in the U.S. (69.4%) and Korean mothers in Korea (73.1%) had a college graduate level of education or above (see Table 2). With regard to working hours, despite a somewhat equal number of working hours between immigrant Korean mothers in the U.S. (M = 42.25) and Korean mothers in Korea (M = 40.41), 34.6% of immigrant Korean mothers in the U.S. reported working more than 50 hours, which was more than twice the percentage reported by Korean mothers in Korea (15.3%).

Some of the findings of the present study add to previous research in the area of Korean immigrants' experiences during the immigration process in the United States. Korean women in America are often obligated to take low-paying, labor-intensive jobs with long hours after immigration because of their low English speaking despite being well educated (Chang & Myers, 1997; Jo, 1999; Min, 2001; Nah, 2002; Park, 1997). Korean women in the U.S. tend to struggle with language barriers more than any other immigrant groups due to the following factors that

cause difficulties in learning English: (a) historically little exposure to Westerners, especially that of the United States to be familiar with English (Jo, 1999; Min, 1998b; Min, 2001; Vegdahl & Hurr, 2005); (b) little in common with English grammatical structure such as a reverse in order between subject and verb (Jo, 1999); and (c) little venturing far from their ethnic community in the U.S. such as acquiring information from Korean language newspapers, watching only Korean-language television programs, and listening to Korean music (Jo, 1999; Min, 1998b; Min, 2001). In addition, immigrant Korean women are frequently obligated to assist their husbands with family businesses, which usually require intense and unpaid labor (Park, 19998). Their own professional ambitions are rarely considered under the traditional Korean family values which emphasize that women sacrifice their personal wants for the benefit of the family (Jo, 1999; Min, 1998b; Park, 1997).

Another finding is that most children of working immigrant Korean mothers outside the home in the U.S. were more likely to receive care from a non-center based arrangement (67.3%): 14.3% of grandmothers, 2.0% of relatives, and 51.0% of mothers or fathers at their work places or working at home, which is more than doubled compared to child care center (32.7%). Generally, immigrant parents are less likely to have jobs with standard hours. For example, immigrants are more likely to have jobs that include night hours and weekends, which may enable a non-working parent to care for a child while the other parent is working, instead of using child care center (Presser, 2003). The results of this investigation indicate that even when both parents work at least part-time, young children of immigrants remain more likely to be in a parental care or to be without a regular child care arrangement. Matthews and Ewen (2006) found that young children of immigrants are less likely to participate in every type of non-parental care arrangement as compared to in the U.S.

children. The authors concluded that children of immigrants aged thee to five without regard to parental work status are more likely to be in parental care or to be without a regular care arrangement (43%).

Matthews and Ewen (2006) reported that child care is the most common arrangement for children ages thee to five among all working immigrants (34%), compared to 39% of children of working U.S. parents. Parental care or no regular arrangement reported by Matthews and Ewen (2006) was the next proportion (27%) for all working immigrants, compared to 18% of children of U.S. parents. For the immigrant Korean children in the study, 67.3% of working immigrant Korean mothers reported that their children were in a non-child care arrangement. The major findings of the present study support that children of immigrants are less likely to participate in child care or kindergarten as compared to American children in the U.S. Therefore, more participation in child care programs is encouraged to prepare children of immigrants for their well-being, socialization, and success in a new society in their early child development and beyond.

Inter-correlations Between the Predictor Variables

This study examined whether or not some predictor variables have any impact on each other. The research showed that mothers who lived in the U.S. longer worked away from home more and contributed more to their total family's income, which was higher. Furthermore, a higher level of English proficiency was attributed to those who had lived in the U.S. for a longer period of time. In terms of the relationship between high levels of education with other predictor variables such as hours employed, English proficiency, child's age, and family income, findings of the study denoted that more years of schooling was neither a factor in advancing greater proficiency in English nor higher income in the U.S. Some of the notable

findings of the study were: (a) Korean immigrants who have lived longer in the U.S. rather than new immigrant arrivals have better overcome most problems involving language, job hunting, and culture shock (Hurh, 1998); (b) Korean immigrant women under the language barrier are eager to take any kind of job paying them minimum wage or working longer hours, and they are prohibited to seek other alternatives regardless of their high level of education because of English proficiency (Jo, 1999; Park, 1997).

Unlike the immigrant Korean mothers in the U.S., the level of education of Korean mothers in Korea was correlated with their working hours outside the home and family income as well. The findings were statistically different from the results of the immigrant Korean mothers in the U.S., which showed no relationship among level of education, work hours, and family income. However, higher-educated Korean mothers in Korea were more likely to work less hours outside the home and had a higher family income than less educated women. From the findings, it could be assumed that a higher level of education influences women in Korea to pursue high-paying occupations as opposed to mothers with a lower level of education (Jo, 1999; Min, 1998a).

Variables Relating to Maternal Stress

The first research question asked how much variance in maternal stress was explained by the predictor variables in immigrant Korean mothers in the U.S. and Korean mothers in Korea. The multiple regression analysis indicated that the predictor variables such as the child's age, child's gender, and family income explained 5.3% of the variance in stress of immigrant Korean mothers in the U.S., showing a weak prediction. As the predictor variables specifying immigrant Korean sample such as years in the U.S. and English proficiency were added into the next

regression model, the weak prediction by those variables in maternal stress was examined.

As for Korean mothers in Korea, the multiple regression analysis indicated that the predictor variables such as child's age, child's gender, and family income explained 10% of the variance in the stress of mothers in Korea in a significant level. The variance explained by these three predictor variables in maternal stress for mothers in Korea showed a moderate prediction. Emphasis must be placed on the fact that higher Total Stress scores of Korean mothers in Korea were related to the highest degree of maternal stress by having young children and male children. Having a young son can be a potential source of the stress for mothers in Korea because of an expectation for Korean mothers to treat their son differently within the male-dominant tradition so that they will become leaders in society in the future (Kim, 2000; Lee-Sohng & Song, 2004; Park, 2006).

Differences in Maternal Stress and Mothers' Perceptions of Their Preschool Children's Social Behaviors

The second research question asked whether or not there is a difference in maternal stress between immigrant Korean mothers in the U.S. and Korean mothers in Korea. The levels of stress, in fact, were generally high among immigrant Koreans and Koreans. The sample of immigrant mothers, however, did not show any significant mean differences of stress scores from the sample of Korean mothers. The findings are consistent with investigations which suggest that immigrants are not more distressed than non-immigrants (Chiu et al., 1992; Scott & Scott, 1989). The current study does not confirm that there is something inherent in the immigration experience that produces a type of distress not present in the lives of non-immigrants.

The third research question included two hypotheses. The first hypothesis examined differences in mothers' perceptions of their preschool children's social skills between the two groups. The second hypothesis examined differences in mothers' perceptions of their preschool children's problematic behaviors between the two groups. A possible explanation for the similar mean scores of children's Social Skills between immigrant Korean mothers in the U.S. and Korean mothers in Korea is that the mothers' perceived their children's social skills were relatively low compared to the normative sample reported in the test manual. There was no significant difference between the groups. Based on the similar mean scores between the two samples, the results of this investigation showed that immigration is not a significant explanatory factor of children's social skills perceived by mothers. The main findings which hold for both the U.S. and Korea in the current study can be summarized by stating that children have comparable levels of social skills, regarding social cooperation, social interaction, and social independence, regardless of immigration status.

The results from the analysis using independent *t*-tests on group mean differences for Problem Behavior scores revealed that the mean scores were significantly different from one another. Based on these findings, it is possible to explain that immigrant Korean mothers perceived more behavioral problems with their children than Korean mothers in Korea. The major findings in this study supported the notion that children from immigrant populations show higher problematic social behaviors, compared to non-immigrants. Findings of the present study have added to previous research in the area of immigrant children's stress and social behavior. These results were consistent with findings from earlier researchers (Bagely, 1972; Eppink, 1979), which revealed that children of immigrants showed

more distressed behaviors and elevated rates of behavioral problems in comparison to non-immigrant children due to new culture, different patterns of parent-child interaction, family values and language barriers.

Relationship of Maternal Stress and Mothers' Perceptions of Their Preschool Children's Social Behaviors

The fourth research question also included two hypotheses. The first hypothesis for this research question was that there is no relationship between maternal stress and mothers' perceptions of their preschool children's social skills in immigrant Korean mothers in the U.S. The other hypothesis asserted no relationship between maternal stress and mothers' perceptions of their preschool children's behavioral problems in immigrant Korean mothers in the U.S. The findings showed that there was a negative, yet not significant relationship between levels of maternal stress and Social Interaction which is one of the social Skills Subscales. There were statistically negative relationships between maternal stress and mothers' perceptions of two other Social Skills Subscales: Social Cooperation and Social Independence. The findings generally revealed that immigrant Korean mothers who were stressed with their parenting skills were more likely to perceive their children as a having low levels of social skills. Based on these findings, it can be stated that an immigrant Korean mother's stress correlates with the children's social skills at a low level.

The outcome of the analyses revealed that immigrant Korean mothers who reported higher levels of stress were more likely to perceive their children as having externalizing behavioral problems and to rate their children's overall behavior as problematic. Findings from the current research show that immigrant Korean mothers' stress levels positively correlates with their perceptions of their children's behavioral problems. It is possible to declare that high immigrant Korean mothers'

stress was associated with mothers' perceptions of increased problematic behaviors of children.

The fifth research question asked whether or not there was a relationship between maternal stress levels and mothers' perceptions of their preschool children's social behaviors, regarding social skills and behavioral problems. A possible explanation for the relationship between maternal stress and children's social skills perceived by mothers is that levels of stress reported by Korean mothers in Korea is negatively linked with the mothers' perceptions of the child's overall social skills. There were negative relationships between Total Stress and all Social Skills Subscales, but not significant on Social Independence. Determining the interpretation revealed that highly stressed Korean mothers in Korea perceived their children as having a low level of social skills, just as with immigrant Korean mothers. It also denoted that less stressed mothers perceived their children as having higher social skills.

Data analyses revealed that immigrant Korean mothers who reported higher levels of stress were more likely to rate their children's overall behavior as problematic, regarding both externalizing and internalizing behavioral problems. The finding explains how mothers in Korea also perceived their children to have increased behavioral problems, when they had elevated stress. In other words, it supports the notion that stress among mothers in Korea significantly correlates with the perception of their children's behavioral problems. Therefore, mothers in Korea who were burdened with high stress were more likely to have children with more behavioral problems such as aggressive, overactive, and self-centered behaviors.

The sixth research question, including hypotheses 10 and 11, examined whether or not there was a difference in the relationship between maternal stress

and mothers' perceptions of their preschool children's social behaviors-Social Skills and Problem Behaviors-in immigrant Korean mothers in the U.S. and Korean mothers in Korea. There were no significant differences in the relationship between maternal stress and mothers' perceptions of their children's social skills between both groups, despite slightly higher correlation coefficients for those mothers in Korea compared to the immigrant Korean mothers in the U.S. Korean mothers in both groups were likely reacting to perceptions of their children's inadequate social skills in quite a similar manner. Both sample groups showed that maternal stress negatively correlates with mothers' perceptions of their children's social skills. This data upholds the notion that mothers' stress levels negatively correlates with children's social skills, regardless of immigration status (Abidin et al, 1992; Krueckeberg & Kapp-Simon, 1993). Consistent with these findings, Krueckeberg and Kapp-Simon (1993) found that the PSI Total Stress score was a predictive factor of the parents' ratings of the children's levels of social skills in the control group, which accounted for 28% of the variance. The current study is also consistent with previous research studies which showed a negative relationship between mothers' stress and their children's social competency (Howe, 1994; Coplan et al., 2003). This finding suggests that stress reported by mothers, whether immigrant or non-immigrant status, has the potential to influence children's social skills rated by mothers.

With regard to a connection between maternal stress and mothers' perceptions of their children's behavioral problems, there were no significant differences on the correlations based on immigration status. Determination of the interpretation in the present study showed that Korean mothers in both groups with elevated stress were more likely to rate their children's Internalizing, Externalizing, and overall behavior as more problematic. This finding reinforces the idea that a

greater level of stress was associated with the severity of the child's behavioral problems (Orr et al, 1991). Moreover, these findings are consistent with previous studies on the basis that mothers at higher stress levels perceive children's behavior more negatively and parental stress may influence the development of children's behavioral problems (Crnic & Greenberg, 1990; Podeschi, 1992).

Implications of the Findings

As discussed in the literature review, this study has important cross-cultural research implications for early childhood educators, as well as for parents of young children. This research demonstrates the importance for parents, educators, and administrators to encourage the children of immigrants to participate more in child care programs. The findings in this study showed that children of immigrant Korean mothers participate at lower rates in preschool. Children of immigrants are often disproportionately at risk for under-enrollment in preschool programs because immigrant parents may have difficulties finding information about educational programs due to their limited English proficiency (Harris-Hastick, 1996; Lynch, 2004; Matthews & Ewen, 2006). Care for young children is the beginning of the long educational process, which ultimately turns out productive adults who will inherit our societal responsibilities. Therefore, encouraging children's participation in quality early education programs would be very beneficial for their well-being and academic success in early child development.

Ideally, the findings of this study should inspire educators, administrators, and communities to provide appropriate services which can assist Korean mothers who are stressed by the combined forces of immigration and parenting. Specifically, research in the current study showed that English speaking proficiency of immigrant

Korean mothers was correlated with the length of residence in the U.S. rather than their levels of education as stated by Hurh (1998). Thus, newer immigrants (i.e., 1-2 years living in the U.S.) from Korea are likely to experience far more discomfort in communication in English. In addition, the findings revealed that most of the immigrant Korean mothers were more likely to identify their reading skills in English as being much better than their speaking. Their lack of English proficiency may make it more difficult for parents to find information about child care and early education opportunities (Schnur & Koffler, 1995). Therefore, it is recommended that early childhood educators to find the most effective methods of communicating with parents of different native languages and cultures, for the overall benefit of the students and their parents.

When immigrant parents experience difficulty in communication with others, it may impact both parents and young children alike as linguistically isolated in a new society (Al-Kssa, 1996; Ben-Sira, 1997; Hong & Hong, 1996; Jo, 1999; Park, 1997). This isolation can lead to emotional discomfort, such as frustration and helplessness (Kim & Omizo, 1996). These negative experiences and feelings of discomfort may make parents withdraw or segregate themselves from the mainstream of the society (Kim & Omizo, 1996). It could further result in the mother's stress and exclude their young children to participate in any multiple settings including child care, Head Start, preschool, and pre-kindergarten, which can play a major role in facilitating their adjustment to a new country (Schnur & Koffler, 1995). Therefore, organizations that can be accessible to immigrant families and can serve as a bridge to link immigrant families will help mothers of young children to become involved in the best possible quality of education for their children.

Based on the findings from the study, the Korean mothers in both groups

were less likely to feel a sense of emotional closeness to the child, which may lead to passive pattern of parent-child interaction (Abidin, 1995). For the quality of relationship between mothers and their children influences areas of the children's later social development such as peer relations, self-esteem, and behavioral problems (Berk, 1998; Bigner, 2002; Duggal et al, 2001; Hamner & Turner, 1996; Santrock, 2002; Shonkoff & Phillips, 2000). Because children who feel a more secure emotional attachment with their mothers tend to have a higher quality of social development, it is important for professionals in this field to remain focused on finding ways to support mothers at risk from the destructive forces of stress.

With regard to parental health problems, immigrant Korean mothers faced higher risk levels, which may be the result of parenting stress or an additional independent stress in the parent-child system (Abidin, 1995). There is a link between parental health problems and problematic parent-child relationships (Yeh & Inose, 2002). The acculturation process introduces immigrant mothers to a variety of difficulties while parenting. This may lead to parental health problems which can be manifested in either emotional or physical ways such as depression, withdrawal, or illness (Klein & Chen, 2001; Lynch, 2004; Short & Johnston, 1997). However, due to an unfortunate element of Korean culture, Korean women are reluctant to share their emotional or physical ailments with others (Chang & Myers, 1997; Kim, 2000; Kim, 2002). Although the parental health problems of the mothers in Korea were not at a level of high risk, there were reports of higher levels of parenting stress due to parental health factors. For the benefit of mothers in both groups, it is imperative that early childhood educators place more emphasis on constructive support in the areas of close emotional bonding and parental health status through several ways such as inviting immigrant parents to share their experiences, interviewing, and parent

education programs.

The aforementioned perspectives strongly lead to multicultural understandings from early childhood educators working with immigrant communities. Currently, cultural diversity is one of the most prominent characteristics of America. Despite the fact that there are many children and families from different cultural backgrounds in the U.S., many teachers are not adequately prepared for teaching those children in a curriculum that relates to cultural diversity or cultural responsive instruction (Barnes, 2006; Robles-Goodwin, 2006). As mentioned earlier by many researchers (Banks, 1997; Banks, 2002; Derman-Sparks, 1993; Klein & Chen, 2001; Ladson-Billings, 1994; Ladson-Billings, 2000), in order to instruct children in a diverse spectrum and provide equal educational opportunities, early childhood educators should consider a culturally appropriate curriculum in a classroom since children learn their similarities and differences in school environments (Derman-Sparks, 1993). In short, it is ideal for early childhood educators to facilitate multicultural education and implement a central idea or theme that allows the inclusion of the student's culture and experiences into their teaching.

This research brings attention to the substantial relationship between maternal stress and mother's perceptions of their children's social behaviors in both immigrant Korean mothers in the U.S. and mothers in Korea. The findings suggest a need for further research about stress experienced while parenting not only by mothers in Korea and immigrant Korean mothers in the U.S., but all immigrant mothers within the rapidly growing immigrant population in the United States as well. Maternal stress affects the quality of parenting and children's developmental functioning, which in turn influences mother-child relationships (Crnic & Low, 2002). It denotes that safer and considerate quality care has an effect on better mother-

child relationships, which supports a motivation to learn and encourages children to adjust as a member of a social culture. Therefore, cross-cultural research should continue to provide appropriate family services for both immigrant and non-immigrant groups, and promote parent involvement in their children's education.

With regard to children's social behavior, encouraging young children toward acceptable behavior and providing opportunities for competence building under adult supervision through positive parent-child or teacher-child interaction are necessary because developing social skills are not innate for children (Bredekamp & Copple, 2002), as represented in the theory of scaffolding and Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD) by Vygotsky (1978). This theory urges helping young children acquire self-discipline, self-confidence, and social skills in the curriculum as a large part of early childhood. With the dramatic increase of children from diverse cultures in the U.S., there is a need for more culturally relevant programs that address individualized needs and diversity among families (Bredekamp, 1987; Human Services Policy Center, 2000). Ethnic minority children do not always receive high quality instruction early on, which causes them to be misdiagnosed with learning disabilities when they have just fallen behind in reading (Ramely & Ramely, 1998). Therefore, schools should not wait for students to fail before they step in to provide corrective actions. McConnell (2000) mentioned "…the major purposes of early intervention and education are improving skills, competencies, or adjustment for individual children and their families" (p. 44). By considering children's unique individual patterns, cultural appropriateness is critical for a positive early intervention program with the family's cultural beliefs, traditions, and practices (Bredekamp, 1987; Ramely & Ramely, 1998).

Recommendations for Future Research

There are several recommendations for future research based on this study. The recommendations include the following: First, future studies should consider the use of qualitative data such as interviews, documents, and participant observation data, to understand and explain the participant's experience based on diverse cultures. By using in-depth qualitative research, data presents rich information that enables researchers to elicit the true essence of how stress affects mothers, and how maternal stress influences children. In addition, this approach will enable the researcher to examine the children's behaviors excluding mothers' preconception toward their children. Having teachers use a rating system to measure children's social skills could also be implemented to avoid mothers' preconceptions toward their children.

Second, cross-cultural studies between immigrants and non-immigrants in diverse cultures are necessary and important. The value of effective cross-cultural interaction increases because of the demographic changes of the United States and the growing numbers of people with immigrant status. The cultural adjustment experiences of these people may be vastly different from one another. "...Working effectively with families from cultures that differ from one's own requires an understanding of one's own beliefs and values as well as recognition that one's language, culture, and ethnicity do influence interactions" (Lynch & Hanson, 2004, p. 37). Expanding other world-views and providing services with educational implications available for both immigrants and non-immigrants can be crucial to success for everyone involved.

Third, future investigations can examine fathers' parenting stressors. Fathers and their quality of fathering can affect the well-being of children. Fathers assume an

important provider role, as well as various responsibilities related to the child's adaptation to the social environment (Paquette, 2004). Fathers interact in various ways with their children via different methods of caregiving, even though they tend to give less care to children than mothers (Paquette, 2004; Vogel, Boller, Faerber, Shannon, & Tamis-LeMonda, 2003). Fathers are subject to many stressors, particularly parenting stress, therefore it is essential to take into account both maternal and paternal stress. Providing program services to men, and developing ways to encourage fathers to become involved in program services is of monumental importance.

Finally, a large-scale study would be ideal to increase the generalizability of research findings. A larger sample size with both Korean immigrants and non-immigrants from different geographic locates will contribute to generate more reliable findings based on the research results.

Attention should be given to the stress mothers experience based on cultural differences, and how maternal stress influences mother's perceptions of their children's social behaviors, so that a positive parent-child interaction in the family environment can be enhanced. In the present of changing demographics of the United States with growing number of immigrants, it will be essential to acknowledge the importance of the association between stress and children's behaviors to foster more culturally competent service systems to create and maintain a sociopolitical climate that supports all children and their families. Such an efficient notion will contribute to all children from different cultural backgrounds acquiring a good head start in life, and to succeed in their futures.

APPENDIX A

DESCRIPTION OF STUDY AND DIRECTOR'S PERMISSION

LETTER TO DIRECTOR

Dear Director:

My name is Anna Cho, and I am a doctoral candidate in the field of early childhood education with the Department of Counseling, Development, and Higher Education at the University of North Texas. I am currently conducting a study for my doctoral dissertation. I am asking for your help in a research project for the purpose of collecting information for my dissertation. My research topic is “The relationship between maternal stress and mother perceptions of their preschool children’s social behaviors: A cross cultural study on the United States and Korea.” There is much that is unknown about how maternal stress impacts children’s social behaviors perceived by Korean mothers immigrating to the USA. Specifically, there has not been much data collected on whether there is any difference between immigrant Korean mothers in the USA and Korean mothers in Korea in the area of parental stress and patterns of child social behaviors. This study will help contribute to future planning of intervention programs for Korean families in the USA and Korea.

Your voluntary involvement in the study will include giving a permission letter to the investigator, distributing research information and mother informed consent forms which should be signed. This project also involves their voluntary participation in completing the two short surveys. The mothers participating in this study must have a child aged 4-6 years old. The immigrant Korean mothers must have lived in the USA for less than 10 years.

The potential risks involved in this study may be that answering some of the questions on the surveys could elicit certain negative thoughts or feelings associated with the personal difficulties or stress the participants have experienced in the past. Volunteering participants are free to withdraw their consent, and discontinue participation in this study at anytime. All of the information will be strictly confidential, and will be used for only research purposes. At the conclusion of the study, any papers which show your name will be destroyed, and the results will be made available to the all directors and parents. It is my hope that this study will help contribute to a better understanding of the relationship between maternal stress and children’s social behaviors. I would appreciate if you sign and return the permission to me within one week.

Thank you for your time and consideration.

Sincerely,

Anna Cho, M.Ed.

DIRECTOR'S LETTER OF PERMISSION

I, _____, agree to participate in this study of the relationship between maternal stress and mother perceptions of preschool children's social behaviors, comparing immigrant Korean families and non-immigrant Korean families. The purpose of the study is to determine the impact of maternal stress on children's social behavior. This study will also help contribute to future planning of intervention programs for Korean families in the USA and Korea.

As a director, I am giving my permission to the researcher to investigate mother's perception toward their maternal stress and children's social behavior. I understand my involvement will include giving permission to the investigator, distributing research information and informed consent sheets, and colleting returned consent sheets and surveys.

I have been informed that the investigator will reveal neither my name nor the name of participants. All information will be kept strictly confidential and will be used for research purposes only. Any papers which show my name is destroyed upon the completion of the study.

I understand that the potential risks involved in this study may be that answering some of the questions on the surveys could elicit certain negative thoughts or feelings associated with the personal difficulties or stress the participants have experienced in the past, and that I am free to withdraw my consent and discontinue participation in this study at any time. I also understand that at the end of the study, the investigator will make the summary of research findings available for all participants.

_____ _____

Signature of Director Date Signed

원장님께 드리는 편지

존경하는 원장님께:

저는 University of North Texas 박사과정에서 유아교육을 전공하고 박사학위 논문을 준비중인 조안나라고 합니다. 저는 “엄마의 스트레스와 엄마가 지각하는 취학 전 유아의 사회적 행동과의 관계”에 대하여, 미국의 한국이민가족과 한국의 가족을 비교, 연구 중에 있습니다. 잘 아시다시피 자녀의 교육환경 등을 이유로 한국가정의 해외이민이 날로 증가추세에 있으나, 엄마의 스트레스가 유아의 사회적 행동에 끼치는 영향에 대해서 미국으로 이민한 한국가족을 대상으로 한 연구가 많이 부족한 실정이며, 특히 한국가족과 이민가족의 비교연구는 거의 이루어지지 않고 있습니다. 따라서 이 논문의 결과는 이민가족과 한국가족을 위한 프로그램 개발에 기여할 것이며, 유아교육을 담당하고 계신 원장님께도 많은 도움이 될 것이라 생각됩니다.

논문에 필요한 정보를 수집하기 위하여 귀하의 도움이 필요합니다. 이 연구를 위하여 귀원의 학부모를 상대로 정보를 수집할 수 있도록 허락해 주실 것과 학부모의 자발적인 참여를 이끌어 주시기를 부탁 드립니다. 이 연구를 위하여 만 4-6세 자녀를 가진 어머니의 참여가 필요하며, 개인 신상정보의 보장을 위해 이 연구에 참여하고자 하는 어머니는 연구에 관한 정보를 이해하고, 동의서에 사인을 한 후 두 개의 질문지에 응답을 해야 합니다.

이 연구에 참여함으로 인한 잠재적인 위험은 과거에 어머니가 경험했던 개인적인 어려움이나 스트레스와 관련된 부정적인 생각 또는 느낌을 다시 불러 일으킬 수 있는 점입니다. 불편함을 느낄 시에 이 연구에 참여하시는 귀하와 어머니는 언제든지 중도에 그만 두실 수 있으며, 그로 인해 어떤 불이익도 받지 않을 것입니다. 본 연구에 사용되는 모든 질문지는 부모님의 신분을 노출시키지 않으며, 모든 정보는 익명으로 사용될 것입니다. 더욱이 모든 대답들은 **비밀이 보장**되며 오직 본 연구의 목적으로만 사용될 것입니다. 본 연구의 결과는 귀하와 부모님들께서 원하신다면 언제든지 함께 나눌 수 있습니다. 바라건대 이 연구로 인해 부모님이 스트레스와 그에 따르는 자녀의 사회적 행동과의 관계에 대하여 더 나은 이해와 정보를 얻기를 원합니다.

감사합니다.

조 안나 올림

참여 허가서

본인 _____ (은/는), “엄마의 스트레스와 엄마가 지각하는 취학 전 유아의 사회적 행동과의 관계”에 대하여, 미국의 한국이민가족과 한국의 가족을 비교하는 연구에 참여함을 동의합니다. 이 연구의 목적은 엄마의 스트레스가 자녀의 사회적 행동에 끼치는 관계를 알아보는 것이며, 이 연구는 한국의 가족과 미국에 이민한 한국가족을 위해 더 나은 프로그램을 개발하는 데에 기여할 것입니다.

본인은 이 연구자에게 본원에서 이 연구를 위한 정보를 수집하는 것을 허락하며, 부모의 자발적인 참여와, 동의서에 사인 및 질문지를 배포하고 회수하는 데에 기꺼이 참여할 것입니다.

본인은 연구자로부터, 본인의 이름이나 부모님의 신분이 노출되지 않음을 사전 통보 받았으며, 모든 정보는 비밀이 보장되고, 오직 본 연구의 목적으로만 사용될 것임을 인지합니다. 또한 연구 후에 모든 이름과 신상이 명세 된 정보는 파기될 것임을 이해합니다.

본인은 이 연구에 참여함으로 인한 잠재적인 위험이 있을 수 있음을 이해하며, 언제든지 중도에 참여를 포기할 수 있음을 인지합니다. 또한 연구자는 이 연구의 결과를 부모님들께서 원하신다면 언제든지 함께 나눌 수 있음을 알고 있습니다.

_____ _____

사인 사인 날짜

APPENDIX B

INFORMED CONSENT FORM FOR MOTHERS

INFORMED CONSENT FORM FOR MOTHERS
University of North Texas

Before agreeing to participate in this research project, it is important that you read and understand the following explanation regarding the purpose and benefits of the study and how it will be conducted.

Title of Study: The relationship between maternal stress and mother's perceptions of their preschool children's social behaviors: A cross cultural study on the United States and Korea.

Purpose of the Study: You are being asked to participate in a research project which determines the impact of maternal stress on children's social behaviors, comparing immigrant Korean families in the USA and Korean families in Korea.

Study Procedures: You will be asked to fill out the three surveys. One survey is to identify basic background information of you and your child. Another survey is to measure stress in the parenting system. The third survey addresses children's social behavior. All these surveys will take approximately 30 minutes of your time to complete. After completion of the surveys, you need to return it to the director within one week from the day you receive it. The researcher will then analyze and report findings to the teachers, directors, and you.

Foreseeable Risks: The potential risks involved in this study may be that answering some of the questions on the surveys could elicit certain negative thoughts or feelings associated with the personal difficulties or stress you have experienced in the past. Your participation in the study is voluntary. If at any time you choose to withdraw from the study, you may do so without any penalty or loss of the benefits to which you are entitled. At the conclusion of the study, the results will be made available to the interest of all of you participating in the study.

Benefits to the Subjects or Others: The researcher will make your score on maternal stress in this study available individually, and provide feedback at the end of the study. You may discover the level of stress you are currently experiencing. Since you will also be asked about your child's social behavior, you may recognize potential behavior problems of your child. This project will provide a better understanding of the relationship between maternal stress and children's social behaviors, as well as contribute to develop a better way to meet the needs of Korean families in the USA and Korea.

Procedures for Maintaining Confidentiality of Research Records: All of the information you provide will be strictly confidential. Only the investigators will have

access to the surveys you complete. You will be assigned a code number which will be used as identification in place of your name on all forms. No one other than the investigators will have access to the master list matching code numbers with names. At the conclusion of this study, the master list of participants will be destroyed.

Use of Research Data: The information from this project will be used for scientific or educational purposes in the field of Early Childhood Education. It may be presented at scientific meetings and/or published and reproduced in professional journals, books, or used for any other purpose that the University of North Texas's College of Education considers proper in the interest of education, knowledge, or research. However, the information that will be collected will not be presented in any manner that will identify you, your child, or anyone else by name.

Review for the Protection of Participants: This research project has been reviewed and approved by the UNT Institutional Review Board (IRB).

Participant's Consent

I have read the purpose of this project. I have been told the possible benefits and the potential risks and/or discomforts of the study. I understand that I do not have to take part in this study, and my refusal to participate or my decision to withdraw from the study will involve no penalty or loss of rights or benefits. The study personnel may choose to stop my participation at any time. I understand why the study is being conducted and how it will be performed. I also understand my rights as a research participant and I voluntarily consent to participate in this study. I understand that I will receive a copy of this consent form. I further understand that if I have any questions about this research and its conduct, I will contact one of the following:

Principal Investigator: Anna Cho, M.Ed.
UNT Doctoral Student, College of Education

Faculty Sponsor: Patsy Robles-Goodwin, Ed.D.
UNT College of Education

_____
Printed Name of Mother

_____ _____
Signature of Mother Date Signed

어머니의 참여 동의서
University of North Texas

이 연구에 참여하는 것을 동의하기 전에, 본 연구의 목적과 방법 및 연구로 인한 이점에 대하여 설명을 읽고 이해하는 것이 중요합니다.

연구 제목: 엄마의 스트레스와 엄마가 지각하는 취학 전 유아의 사회적 행동과의 관계: 미국에 이민한 한국 가족과 한국의 가족 비교 연구

연구 목적: 어머니는 엄마의 스트레스가 엄마 자신이 지각하는 유아의 사회적 행동에 끼치는 영향에 대한 연구에 참여할 것이며, 미국의 한국이민가족과 한국의 가족이 비교, 연구될 것입니다.

연구 절차: 어머니는 기본적인 가정환경에 관한 질문지, 스트레스를 측정하는 질문지, 그리고 취학 전 자녀의 사회적 행동을 측정하는 질문지에 응답을 하는 것이 필요합니다. 본 질문지들은 대략 총 30분 정도의 시간을 필요로 하며, 완성하는 질문지는 가능한 일주일 안에 원장님께 제출하여야 합니다. 본 연구자는 연구의 결과를 선생님과 원장님, 그리고 어머니께 보고할 것입니다.

예측되는 위험: 이 연구의 잠재적인 위험은 질문지에 응답하는 과정에서 특정 질문들이 과거에 어머니가 경험했던 개인적인 어려움과 관련된 부정적인 생각과 느낌을 다시 불러 일으킬 수 있는 점입니다. 이 연구는 자발적인 참여에 의한 것이므로, 어제든지 중도에 그만 두실 수 있으며, 그로 인해 어떤 불이익도 받지 않을 것입니다. 본 연구의 결과는 부모님들께서 원하신다면 언제든지 함께 나눌 수 있습니다.

연구에 따른 이점: 어머니 개개인은 그들이 경험하고 있는 스트레스 정도와 그에 따른 해석을 제공받을 수 있으며, 취학 전 자녀의 사회적 행동을 인식하고, 그들의 문제 행동에 관하여 인지할 수 있습니다. 이 연구는 엄마의 스트레스와 그에 따르는 자녀의 사회적 행동과의 관계에 대하여 더 나은 이해와 정보를 제공할 것이며, 한국의 가족과 미국으로 이민한 한국가족에게 필요한 프로그램을 개발하는 데에 기여할 것입니다.

연구의 기밀성 유지를 위한 절차: 본 연구에 사용되는 모든 질문지는 부모님의 신분을 노출시키지 않으며, 모든 정보는 익명으로 사용될 것입니다. 더욱이 이 연구의 모든 정보들은 **비밀이 보장** 되며, 연구 후에 모든 이름과 신상이 명세 된 정보는 파기될 것입니다.

연구 자료의 사용: 이 연구의 모든 정보들은 유아교육분야에서 교육/과학적인 목적으로만 사용될 것입니다. 본 연구 결과는 교육/과학적인 회의나 전문적인 학회간행물, 또는 책에 발간될 수 있으며, University of North Texas에서 또 다른 연구와 교육 목적 하에 쓰여질 수 있습니다. 이때에 참여자의 이름이나 신분이 어떠한 식으로도 노출되지 않을 것이며, 모든 정보는 비밀이 보장될 것입니다.

참여자의 보호를 위한 검토: 이 연구는 UNT Institutional Review Board (IRB)에 의해 검토되고, 승인되었습니다.

참여자 동의서

본인은 이 연구의 목적, 연구에 따르는 이점, 그리고 잠재적인 위험 등에 대하여 이해합니다. 본인은 언제든지 중도에 참여를 거부할 수 있고, 그로 인해 어떤 불이익도 받지 않을 것임을 이해합니다. 본인은 이 연구의 절차를 이해하며, 기꺼이 자발적인 참여에 동의를 할 것입니다. 이 연구에 관한 어떤 문제나 질문이 있다면, 본인은 연구자 조안나 또는 지도교수 Dr. Patsy Robles-Goodwin과 연락을 취할 것입니다.

연구자: 조 안나
University of North Texas 박사과정

지도교수: Patsy Robles-Goodwin, Ed.D.
UNT College of Education

_____
어머니 이름

_____ _____
어머니 사인 사인 날짜

APPENDIX C

LETTER OF PERMISSION TO USE OF PARENTING STRESS INDEX

PAR
Psychological
Assessment
Resources
16204 N. FLORIDA AVENUE
SUITE, FLORIDA 33549
Tel: (813) 968-3003
Fax: (813) 968-2566
www.parinc.com

Sent Via Email: annasun@yahoo.com

April 6, 2006

Anna Cho
University of North Texas
3205 Kiley Lane
Flower Mound, TX 75022

Dear Ms. Cho:

In response to your recent request, permission is hereby granted to you to reproduce up to a total of 150 copies of the Korean version of the Parenting Stress Index (PSI) for use in your research titled, *An investigation into the relationship between maternal stress and mother perceptions of preschool children's social behaviors: A study of immigrant Korean families in the USA and Korean families in Korea.* If additional copies are needed, it will be necessary to write to PAR for further permission. Permission is also granted for you to reproduce up to a total of 3 sample items from the PSI for use in the appendix of your dissertation.

This Agreement is subject to the following restrictions:

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(2) None of the material may be sold, given away, or used for purposes other than those described above.

(3) Payment of a royalty/license fee of $447.00 ($2.98 per copy for 150 copies). This fee includes a 40% graduate student discount.

APPENDIX D

LETTER OF PERMISSION TO TRANSLATE AND USE OF PRESCHOOL AND KINDERGARTEN BEHAVIOR SCALES-SECOND EDITION

Anna Cho
Early Childhood Education
Dept. of Counseling, Development and Higher Education
College of Education
University of North Texas
Address: 807 Bernard St. #10
Denton, TX 76201

Dear Ms. Cho,

Non-exclusive permission is granted to translate the ***PKBS—2: Preschool and Kindergarten Behavior Scales—Second Edition*** into **Korean** for your research solely as described in your email below. The translated version is only for your own use and is not for commercial use or resale. You agree to give PRO-ED a copy of both your translation of the work along with a copy of your research.

This permission is non transferable and shall automatically expire upon the earlier of the completeness of your research or three (3) years from the date of this permission. PRO-ED makes no representation or warranty about the appropriateness, effectiveness, capability, or reliability in regards to your research and you agree to hold PRO-ED harmless from all claims that may occur as a result of your use of our product in your research.

Good luck with your project!

Sincerely,

Kelly Ligon, Foreign Rights
PRO-ED, Inc.
8700 Shoal Creek Boulevard
Austin, TX 78757
(800) 897-3202 (x682)
(512) 302-9128 (FAX)
kligon@proedinc.com
Visit our website at: www.proedinc.com

APPENDIX E

DEMOGRAPHIC SURVEY FOR IMMIGRANT KOREANT MOTHERS IN THE USA

Date _____

DEMOGRAPHIC SURVEY

(For Immigrant Korean Mothers in the USA)

Thank you for participating in this study. Please circle the selection that applies to you. All information will be kept **confidential.**

I. INFORMATATION ABOUT THE MOTHER

Name: (Optional) _____ **Your Age:** (1) 20-24 years (2) 25-29 (3) 30-34 (4) 35-39 (5) 40-44 (6) 50 (7) Over 50 years

Marital Status: (1) Married (2) Single (3) Divorced (4) Widowed (5) Remarried (6) Other (Specify)

Number of Years Married: _____ **Number of Children:** _____ **Family Size:** (1) 1-2 (2) 3-4 (3) 5-6 (4) 0ver 6

Years in the USA: (1) 1-2 years (2) 2-4 (3) 4-6 (4) 6-8 (5) 8-10 (6) Over 10 years

Education: (1) Middle School Graduate (2) High School Graduate (3) College Graduate (4) Masters and Above (5) Other (Specify) _____

Employment Status: (1) Employed (2) Unemployed (3) Other (Specify) _____

If you are employed, how many hours per week? _____

While you are working, who takes care of your child? (1) Grandmother (2) Relatives (3) Child care center (4) Other (Specify) _____

If your child is enrolled in Child care or Kindergarten, hour many hours per week? _____

Language Spoken at Home: (1) Korean (2) English (3) Both Korean and English (4) Other (Specify) _____

English Proficiency – Reading: (1) None (2) Very little (3) Quite a Lot (4) Very Fluent

English Proficiency – Speaking: (1) None (2) Very little (3) Quite a Lot (4) Very Fluent

English Proficiency – Writing: (1) None (2) Very little (3) Quite a Lot (4) Very Fluent

Total Family Income (Annual):

(1) Under $15,000 (2) $15,000-$24,999 (3) $25,000-$34,999 (4) $35,000-$49,999 (5) $50,000-$74,999 (6) $75,000-$99,000 (7) $1,000,000 or more

II. INFORMATION ABOUT YOUR CHILD (If you have more than one child aged 4-6 years old, you need to focus on **only one** child for this study)

Gender: (1) Male (2) Female **Age:** ____Years _____Months

Birth Order: (1) Only born (2) First Born (3) Second Born (4) Third Born (5) Other (Specify)_____

날짜 _____년_____월_____일

DEMOGRAPHIC SURVEY

(Translated Into Korean for Immigrant Korean Mothers in the U.S.)

일반적인 정보에 관한 조사서

이 연구에 참여해 주심을 감사드립니다. 생각하신 답에 O를 해주세요. 모든 정보는 **비밀이 보장**되므로 아래의 질문에 모두 답해주시기를 부탁드립니다.

I. 엄마에 관한 정보

이름: (선택사항) _____ **본인의 연령:** (1) 만 20-24 세 (2) 25-29 세 (3) 30-34 세 4) 35-39 세 (5) 40-44 세 (6) 50 세 (7) 51 세 이상

결혼상태: (1) 결혼 (2) 독신 (3) 이혼 (4) 미망인 (5) 재혼 (6) 기타(구체적으로) _____

결혼이 지속되어진 햇수: _____ **양육 자녀 수:** _____ **가족 구성원 수:** (1) 1-2 명 (2) 3-4 명 (3) 5-6 명 (4) 7 이상

미국에선 산 기간: (1) 1-2 년 (2) 2-4 년 (3) 4-6 년 (4) 6-8 년 (5) 8-10 년 (6) 11 년 이상

최종학력: (1) 중학교 졸업 (2) 고등학교 졸업 (3) 대학 졸업 (4) 대학원 졸업 또는 그 이상 (5) 기타 (구체적으로) _____

직업유무: (1) 있음 (2) 없음 (3) 기타 (구체적으로) _____

만일 일을 하고 계신다면, 일주일에 일하는 총 시간은? _____

아이를 돌보아 주시는 분은? (1) 할머니 (2) 친척 (3) 어린이 집 (유치원) (4) 기타 (구체적으로)_____

아이가 어린이 집이나 유치원에 다니고 있다면, 일주일 동안 기관에 있는 총 시간은? _____

집에서 사용하는 언어: (1) 한국어 (2) 영어 (3) 한국어와 영어 다 (4) 기타 (구체적으로) _____

영어 능력 – 읽기: (1) 전혀 못함 (2) 매우 조금함 (3) 잘 하는 편임 (4) 매우 유창함

영어 능력 – 말하기: (1) 전혀 못함 (2) 매우 조금함 (3) 잘 하는 편임 (4) 매우 유창함

영어 능력 – 쓰기: (1) 전혀 못함 (2) 매우 조금함 (3) 잘 하는 편임 (4) 매우 유창함

가족 전체의 연간수입: (1) $15,000 미만 (2) $15,000-$24,999 (3) $25,000-$34,999 (4) $35,000-$49,999 (5) $50,000-$74,999
(6) $75,000-$99,000 (7) $1,000,000 또는 그 이상

II. 아동에 관한 정보 (만일 만 4-6세 자녀가 1명 이상 있다면, 오직 **한 자녀**에 대해서만 생각하고 대답해주세요)

성별: (1) 남자 (2) 여자 **나이:** 만 ____년_____개월

출생순위: (1) 외동 (2) 첫째 (3) 둘째 (4) 셋째 (5) 기타 (구체적으로)_____

APPENDIX F

DEMOGRAPHIC SURVEY FOR KOREAN MOTHERS IN KOREA

Date _____

DEMOGRAPHIC SURVEY

(For Korean Mothers in Korea)

Thank you for participating in this study. Please circle the selection that applies to you. All information will be kept **confidential.**

.

I. INFORMATATION ABOUT THE MOTHER

Name: (Optional) _____

Your Age: (1) 20-24 years (2) 25-29 (3) 30-34 (4) 35-39 (5) 40-44 (6) 45-50 (7) Over 50 years

Marital Status: (1) Married (2) Single (3) Divorced (4) Widowed (5) Remarried (6) Other (Specify) _____

Number of Years Married: _____ **Number of Children:** _____ **Family Size:** (1) 1-2 (2) 3-4 (3) 5-6 (4) 0ver 6

Education: (1) Middle School Graduate (2) High School Graduate (3) College Graduate (4) Masters and Above (5) Other (Specify) _____

Employment Status: (1) Employed (2) Unemployed (3) Other (Specify) _____

If you are employed, how many hours per week? _____

While you are working, who takes care of your child? (1) Grandmother (2) Relatives (3) Child care center (4) Other (Specify) _____

If your child is enrolled in Child care or Kindergarten, hour many hours per week? _____

Total Family Income (Annual):

(1) Under $15,000 (2) $15,000-$24,999 (3) $25,000-$34,999 (4) $35,000-$49,999 (5) $50,000-$74,999 (6) $75,000-$99,000 (7) $1,000,000 or more

II. INFORMATION ABOUT YOUR CHILD (If you have more than one child aged 4-6 years old, you need to focus on **only one** child for this study)

Gender: (1) Male (2) Female **Age:** ____Years _____Months

Birth Order: (1) Only born (2) First Born (3) Second Born (4) Third Born (5) Other (Specify)_____

날짜 _____년_____월_____일

DEMOGRAPHIC SURVEY

(Translated Into Korean for Korean Mothers in Korea)

일반적인 정보에 관한 조사서

이 연구에 참여해 주심을 감사드립니다. 생각하신 답에 O를 해주세요. 모든 정보는 **비밀이 보장**되므로 아래의 질문에 모두 답해주시기를 부탁드립니다.

I. 엄마에 관한 정보

이름: (선택사항) _____

본인의 연령: (1) 만 20-24 세 (2) 25-29 세 (3) 30-34 세 (4) 35-39 세 (5) 40-44 세 (6) 45- 50 세 (7) 51 세 이상

결혼상태: (1) 결혼 (2) 독신 (3) 이혼 (4) 미망인 (5) 재혼 (6) 기타 (구체적으로) _____

결혼이 지속되어진 햇수: _____ **양육 자녀 수:** _____ **가족 구성원 수:** (1) 1-2 명 (2) 3-4 명 (3) 5-6 명 (4) 7 이상

최종학력: (1) 중학교 졸업 (2) 고등학교 졸업 (3) 대학 졸업 (4) 대학원 졸업 또는 그 이상 (5) 기타 (구체적으로) _____

직업유무: (1) 있음 (2) 없음 (3) 기타 (구체적으로) _____

만일 일을 하고 계신다면, 일주일에 일하는 총 시간은? _____

아이를 돌보아 주시는 분은? (1) 할머니 (2) 친척 (3) 어린이 집 (유치원) (4) 기타 (구체적으로)_____

아이가 어린이 집이나 유치원에 다니고 있다면, 일주일 동안 기관에 있는 총 시간은? _____

가족 전체의 연간수입: (1) 1,500 만원 미만 (2) 1,500 만원 이상- 2,500 만원 미만 (3) 2,500 만원 이상- 3,500 만원 미만

(4) 3,500 만원 이상- 4,900 만원 미만 (5) 5,000 만원 이상- 7.500 만원 미만 (6) 7,500 만원 이상- 1 억 미만 (7) 1 억 이상

II. 아동에 관한 정보 (만일 만 4-6세 자녀가 1명 이상 있다면, 오직 **한 자녀**에 대해서만 생각하고 대답해주세요)

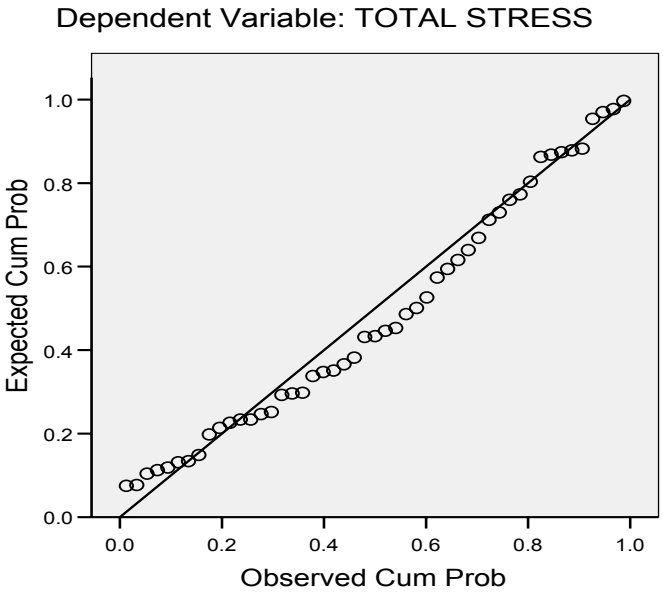
성별: (1) 남자 (2) 여자 **나이:** 만 ____년_____개월

출생순위: (1) 외동 (2) 첫째 (3) 둘째 (4) 셋째 (5) 기타 (구체적으로))_____

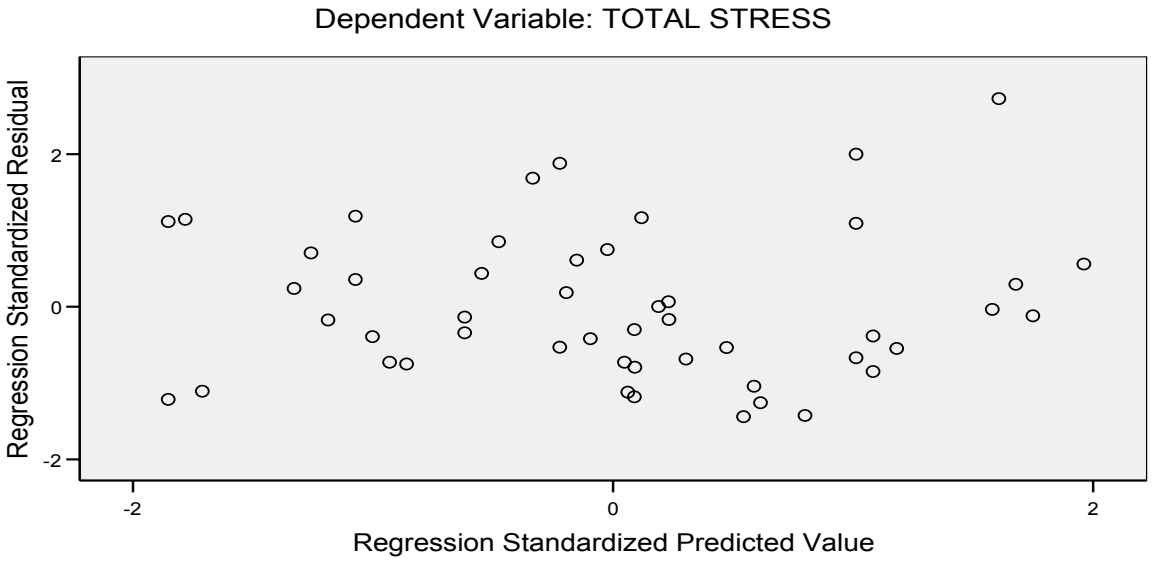
APPENDIX G

DISTRIBUTION OF THE MULTIPE REGRESSION ANALYSIS OF THE IMMIGRANT KOREAN MOTHERS IN THE U.S. – MODEL 1

Normal P-P Plot of Regression Standardized Residual



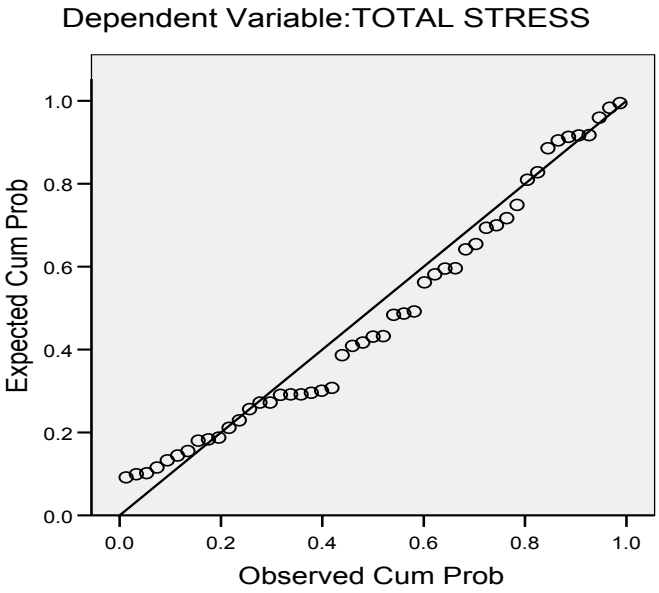
Scatterplot



APPENDIX H

DISTRIBUTION OF THE MULTIPE REGRESSION ANALYSIS OF THE IMMIGRANT KOREAN MOTHERS IN THE U.S. – MODEL 2

Normal P-P Plot of Regression Standardized Residual



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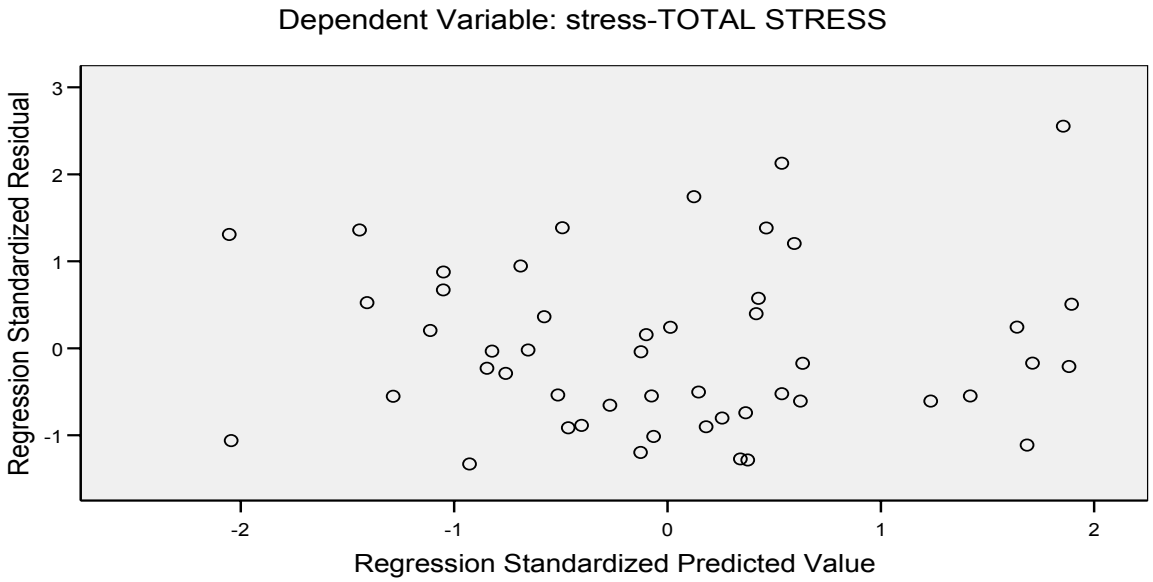
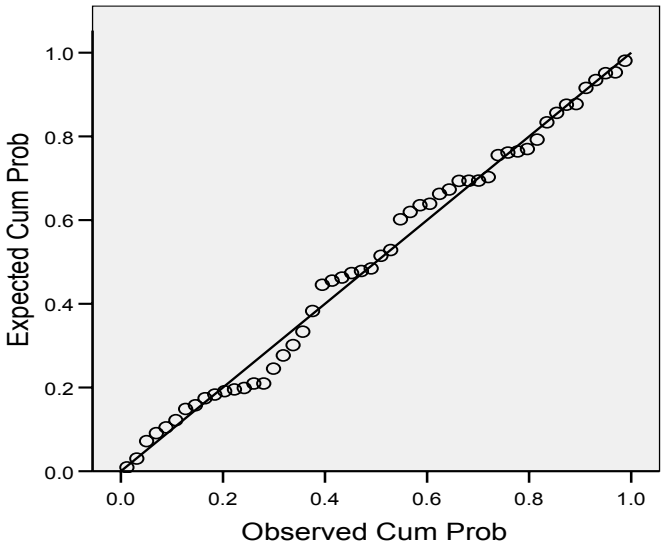


APPENDIX I

DISTRIBUTION OF THE MULTIPE REGRESSION ANALYSIS OF THE KOREAN MOTHERS IN KOREA

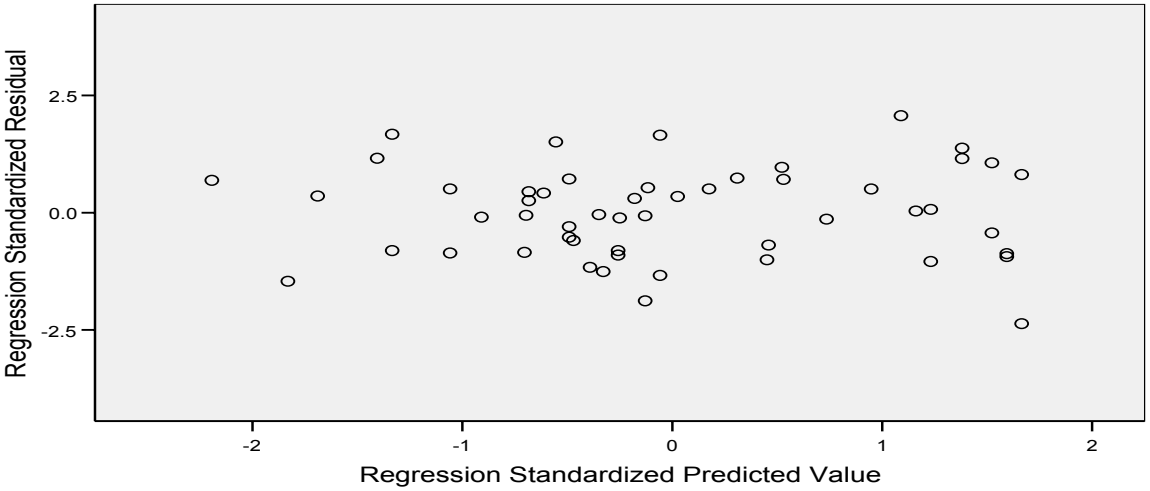
Normal P-P Plot of Regression Standardized Residual

Dependent Variable: TOTAL STRESS



Scatterplot

Dependent Variable: TOTAL STRESS



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